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THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL
MONTHLY.

THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

EDITED BY ARCHIBALD MACMURCHY, M.A.

20
VOL. XX†

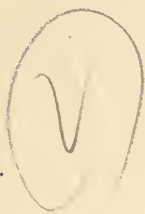
JANUARY TO DECEMBER.

1898.

TORONTO :

THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY PUBLISHING COMPANY.

45232
47/5/99



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THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

JANUARY, 1898.

TRUE EDUCATION.*

TEXT:—"That our sons may grow up as the young plants; and that our daughters may be as the polished corners of the temple."—Ps. cxliv. 12.

IN seeking for words to set forth the nature of human education we become aware of the largeness and complexity of the subject. Human nature is so vast, and the aspects which it presents are so numerous, that we do not easily give an account of its moral and intellectual history and discipline. Thus, we may think of the Church of Christ as the Garden of the Lord; and then the sons of the Church will be as the young plants, or, again, the Church is represented as a Temple, an habitation for God through the Spirit; and then the daughters may be thought of as the polished corners of the Temple, for beauty and ornament.

Here, then, are two widely different conceptions of the work of education, and it is hardly too much to say that the one would be incomplete without the other. If we thought of the polishing of the corner stones of the temple alone, we should be tempted to forget that the subject of education was a living conscious thinking being, whose powers had to be brought out and trained; and if

we thought only of the training of the plant, we might forget that nature needs not only development but repression and restraint.

Among all the differences of opinion which prevail on the subject of education, however, we may find a general cognition of the two principles which are set forth in the imagery here employed, namely, that education must be on the one hand a process of development, and, on the other, a method of discipline. And perhaps if we come to a right understanding of these two principles we shall at least have a starting point from which we may go forth in our work of training up the young of our country in the way they should go.

These questions greatly concern those who are responsible for the working of an institution such as that with which we are connected, and the anniversary meetings of which are now being held; and it may be useful for us, at such a time, to go back to first principles and to ask, in a somewhat general way, what are the methods of education which we can approve and justify from a consideration of the being who is to be educated, and which we are bound to pursue, if we would hope to attain to satisfactory

*A sermon preached by the Rev. Prof. William Clark, LL.D., D.C.L., at the Convocation service, held in the chapel of Trinity College, Toronto, Oct. 19, 1897.

results. Let us begin, if we can, with those points in which there can hardly be any difference of opinion.

And, first of all, we must maintain that

I. EDUCATION SHOULD BE SCIENTIFIC.

Such a statement will seem to most of us so completely self-evident that there is no reason for putting it forward, except as an assumption which needs no proof, and upon which other truths may be shown to depend.

And yet there was a time, and it may not even now have entirely gone by, when religion and science were supposed to be adversaries. The conclusions of certain sciences were regarded as being inconsistent with the contents of the Scriptures, and so it came to pass that men of science were denounced as the enemies of revelation, not only by popular preachers of slender attainments but by learned theologians. The men of science promptly paid them back in their own coin, taunting them with their want of faith in their own principles, since they were afraid of being able to maintain them in the presence of undoubted facts.

Happily for both, this conflict has now come almost to an end: and we have come to know and acknowledge that the genuine results of rightly concluded scientific investigation, can never endanger, but can only support the truth, and enlarge our views of the divine order to which we belong. And how should it be otherwise when we understand the nature of scientific knowledge and what it professes to accomplish. The aim of science is to give us knowledge of facts, of laws, of principles, to give us a knowledge which shall be systematic and orderly, and, as far as possible, complete. Its aim is to arrange and classify the facts of observation, so as

to give us a better understanding of their meaning and relations, and thus to bring nature more and more under control.

Now there is no sphere into which science may not claim to enter; and assuredly it cannot safely be banished from the realm of education. And this will appear from whatever point of view we regard the subject, whether we think of learning as an exercise of memory, or as a development of the whole nature, or as a discipline of mind and heart and will, everywhere we meet with laws of thought, emotion, will, and the recognition of those laws is the work of science.

Few can need to be told that these principles are now receiving almost universal recognition. We may grant that, in days gone by, there were great educationists who were guided partly by instinct, partly by the traditions of the past, and partly by their own experience. But it is not reasonable to expect that all teachers should be endowed with such exceptional powers. The ordinary teacher, even the superior teacher, must govern himself by rule, by method, by principle, scientifically ascertained; and whatever our own prejudices and preferences may be in regard to the prominence which should be given to one class of subjects or another in education, there will, at least, be at this present time, no difference of opinion between educated and thinking men, when we say that our educational methods should be scientific.

II. With equal confidence we may assert that

EDUCATION SHOULD BE COMPREHENSIVE.

In other words, a true education will have regard to the whole nature of the being to be educated, whether of man or of any other creature. This is an obvious, elementary truth, and moreover, it is a simple inference from

the requirement that education should be scientific.

1. We have long been agreed that education does not mean the mere imparting of information or human knowledge. Indeed at this present moment we are probably in greater danger of ignoring the importance of such acquisition. From every point of view full and accurate knowledge is of the highest importance. Without this there can be no real mental discipline. Without this there can be no real power of grasping the problems which present themselves in every walk of life. Only the most ignorant and thoughtless can undervalue the possession of knowledge, whether it takes the form of language, or of science, or any other form.

2. Still less can we allow that education is a means of equipping us for the race of life to such a degree that we may outstrip others. Undoubtedly one part of our business in life is to earn a sufficiency to provide for ourselves and those who may be dependent upon us; and there is nothing low or unworthy in attributing considerable importance to this view of our life. We must choose our work—our business, our profession, our calling—and we must clearly contemplate the necessity of living by this calling; and so one considerable part of our education must be the fitting of ourselves for that work. Yet if we come to think of education as a means of merely making more money than others are able to make, and of being cleverer than those who are about us, we shall have degraded this great business of our life and missed its real value and importance.

3. Moreover, education is more than the mere training of the intellectual powers. On the importance of such discipline it is unnecessary to insist. It is man's reason that raises him above the beasts that perish.

"On earth there is nothing great but
man,
In man there is nothing great but
mind."

To see clearly, to reason accurately—this is a great part of man's mental education—a part with which he cannot dispense if he would be properly fitted for any work among his fellow-men.

But this is not all. Man is not mere intellect. He has feeling, imagination, will; and the neglect of these elements of his constitution will assuredly be attended by the most serious consequences. Man is truly educated when his whole nature is cultivated, when all his powers are drawn out and made to work together in perfect harmony.

4. Nor, in speaking of the completeness of the education of the whole man, must we overlook his physical training, the discipline of those bodily powers which are an essential part of man's nature and functions. Certain kinds of education have undoubtedly overlooked the claims of the body, and thereby have done great harm to body and soul alike.

The body is a part of man's threefold nature of Body, Soul, and Spirit. Not only our spiritual nature but also our flesh was assumed by the eternal Word of God in the Incarnation. We are commanded to glorify God in our bodies. The body is the agent of the soul, and again reacts upon the spiritual nature. The neglect or abuse of the body avenges itself upon the soul.

It may indeed seem unnecessary to insist upon this part of the subject in these days, when complaints are heard on every side that young men are becoming so absorbed in athletic exercises that they grudge all time and thought bestowed upon mere intellectual pursuits—when it is said that young men, and even men who are no longer young, can find no enter-

tainment in a book, and find the slightest effort in the way of reading a weariness of the flesh.

But even if this be so, that is no reason why the just claims of man's physical nature should be neglected ; and moreover, the very point on which we are insisting is the duty of rendering to the body its own, of conceding its just claims ; for we shall thus best guard against that abuse of which many thoughtful men are now complaining. Such then, we maintain, is the only true and complete education for man, that training and discipline which takes account of his whole nature of body, soul, and spirit—which has regard to his whole inner man of mind, and heart, and will.

III. One other characteristic of a true education remains to be considered :

EDUCATION SHOULD BE RELIGIOUS.

It might seem that here also we had passed beyond the bounds of controversy ; and that, however much we might differ in regard to what we might call the subordinate doctrines of religion or the methods of religious instruction, we should at least find a general agreement that religion should form part of the education of the young.

And indeed there are not many out of the whole of our population who would condemn religious education altogether or regard it as unnecessary. To take either of these extreme views we must assume that no God exists, or none who concerns Himself with the destinies of men, or that it is impossible for man to know God, or that man is not a religious being.

Is it necessary here—or almost anywhere else—to controvert any of these positions ? No one save an Atheist or an Agnostic calls in question the existence of the government of God, or man's capacity for know-

ing and serving Him ; and however worthy of attention their difficulties may be at another time and place, they need not occupy our attention here to-night.

We, my brethren, and by that I mean the immense majority of English speaking men, and especially of Canadians, we believe that man was made in the image of God and thereby fitted for fellowship with God. We believe that God has revealed Himself in nature, in the order of the world, in the reason and conscience of man, and supremely in Jesus Christ our Lord. We believe that there is no worse state for man than to be "without God in the world." We are ready to say with our great poet :

" For what are men better than sheep or goats
That nourish a blind life within the brain,
If, knowing God, they lift not hands of prayer,
Both for themselves and them that call them friend ?
For so the whole round earth is every way
Bound by gold chains about the feet of God."

And how shall men be brought to worship and to serve unless they are taught the character and the demands of Him whom they are called to acknowledge as Lord and God ?

We are here dealing with one of the most serious questions of the age in which we live ; and men in general seem to be only partially aware of the seriousness of the subject. Yet on all hands and in both continents, a warmer and ever deeper interest is arising in connection with the religious education of the young ; and men are asking how such instruction can be imparted in connection with the systems of education in existence among us. It is hardly necessary to remark that several different methods are proposed, as the non-denomina-

tional method and the denominational method. According to the former, general religious truth alone would be imparted, those fundamental doctrines on which the people of a country or a district were agreed. According to the latter, each denomination would teach to its own children its own special doctrines.

Now, it is believed that most of us would be very thankful for such general religious instruction as would prevent the young from growing up without any practical knowledge of God and of religion. And undoubtedly there is, at the present moment, a serious danger of this coming to pass. When young people are taught about everything except God—when their duties to Him are not inculcated along with their duties to their fellow-men—it is almost inevitable that they should come to believe that the whole matter of religion was of small concern to them and might safely be neglected. We certainly should have no right to be surprised at such a result. And therefore we should be ready to co-operate in any attempt to bring the truths of religion before the minds of the young.

But we believe that there is a more excellent way, the way of teaching definite religious truth, as we ourselves have received and hold it, to those for whose education we are responsible. In such a system all is clear and definite, we are able to teach what we believe, and all that we believe which we regard as necessary for a knowledge of God and what He requires of us. It was on the ground of these convictions and with the desire to provide such an education for the young men who were members of the Church of England that the first Bishop of Toronto took in hand to set up this college and this university. Inspired by the same belief and aim, many generous men and women in Canada, in the United States, and

in Great Britain, gave of their substance that the religion of Christ, as held in that pure apostolic branch of the Church to which we belong, might forever be taught to the sons of the Church. This work has been carried on now for many years with varying success, but with no departure from the original purpose of the institution; and to-night we are commemorating that work, looking back with thankfulness upon the past and praying God for grace to do our work better in the future.

It seems to me, my brethren, that these considerations make a very solemn appeal to us all, to the English Churchmen in Ontario, to the Teachers in this College and also to the Students. Each of these three classes may do much for the work which is being carried on in this place, and it becomes us to ask what it is that we can do.

The Churchmen of the province can give us their interest, their sympathy, and their help. They have already done much, and if some have given but little out of their abundance, others have given much out of their poverty. Much has recently been done to extend our curriculum and to equip the college more completely for its work. But still there remains much to be done, or else certain departments already at work must languish, and other necessary additions will not be able to be paid. This is not the place to go into details. May God, in His goodness, raise up for us helpers in the hour of need.

A very serious responsibility is laid upon the teachers of this college, since upon them chiefly it devolves to give effect to the design with which it was erected. Our work has to be done, on the one hand, with strict regard to the advances being made in all departments of knowledge, and on the other hand, as remembering that all

parts of knowledge proceed from God and lead to Him.

On the one hand, we are not to put religion as a substitute for science, we are not to say that, because we acknowledge the government of God, we need not trouble ourselves to investigate the secrets of nature. We must be students and thinkers, men of devotion and labor.

On the other hand, we are not to do any part of our work in a secular spirit, we are to do it as servants of God and of the Lord Jesus Christ, and of His holy Church.

It is not for me to enlarge on this subject; but as one who is now the senior member of the teaching faculty, and who has taught here for about half a generation, I may be allowed to testify that we who are teaching here value the system which we are called to administer, and would not have it altered, although we long greatly to see it strengthened and further developed. We are thankful for all the religious privileges which we enjoy, for our daily services in this beautiful House of Prayer, and should regard the loss of these privileges as a calamity. God grant that we may ever more fully accomplish the work to which we have been called.

But once more, these considerations speak also to the students of the College, the fruit of all our labors, who must ultimately prove the test of the real value of such an institution.

It is obvious, my brethren, that the design of a College like this must be to send forth into the world those who may be called Christian gentlemen. If we succeed in this, we have herein the proof that the blessing of God has been with us, and the pledge that it will be with us in the future. If it could be said, and I trust it never will be said, that we sent out those who were neither Christians nor gentlemen, then Ichabod would be written on our walls and our doom would be sealed. Let us all remember that for whatever may be the outcome of our work here, we are all of us, jointly and individually, responsible, from the oldest to the youngest. Every thought and word and deed of ours is going not only to the formation of our own characters and the doing of our own work, but is determining the destiny of this place of learning. Every duty faithfully performed or neglected, every work done halfheartedly or devotedly,—all have their record in our lives and in the history and destiny of our university.

EDUCATION AS AN AID TO LABOR.*

E. R. DAVEY, M.A., LL.B.

AS so much time and money are being annually spent on education, it is necessary that we should constantly keep in mind the ends to be achieved by it, that we may so judiciously adjust our labors as to produce the most fruitful results.

Education is defined as "the harmonious development of all the faculties

with a view to their fullest and noblest use." It is then both a good in itself and also a means to an end—a good in itself being necessarily and naturally accompanied by happiness—and it is a means to an end inasmuch as it trains the faculties for use. One use, as my text indicates, and no inconsiderable one either, is to aid labor.

Most parents are desirous that their children should be well educated, or have the "education of a gentle-

* A paper read at the Third Annual Congress of the State School Teachers of Victoria.

man ; " but they too frequently overlook the fact that their studies should be so designed as to conduce most expeditiously to their becoming thorough masters of some trade or profession ; for education should afford, above all other considerations, an equipment for the battle of life.

Now, formal education consists of three stages, primary, secondary and university ; but it would be ridiculous to suppose that when the student has passed through these three stages, his success in life is therefore assured, and that he walks out of the school a made man. Nothing of the sort ! He has been engaged with principles and theories for the most part, and the world is now his great laboratory, in which he must put to the only true test of actual practical experience what he has learned in a great measure merely from books. We shall see, however, that in each of the three stages mentioned, the education has the definite result of making the student a more efficient laborer in whatever field he subsequently chooses work. Primary education is that which obtains in our State schools. Its object is to lay a good substratum upon which the child can afterwards build. The three R's, reading, writing and arithmetic, are indispensable for this purpose. In addition, however, geography, English history and a little science are taught, and the child's observing and reasoning faculties are trained so as to render him, as far as possible, an independent thinker and reasoner in order that he may conduct his business in life as an honest, decent and intelligent citizen.

Secondary education is that leading from the State school to the University. It does not exist as a State education in Victoria, except, chiefly, in the Workingmen's Colleges. Many countries possess these secondary State schools, *e.g.*, the United States,

Switzerland, etc., and the colonies of New South Wales, New Zealand, Canada and Cape Colony.

In this secondary stage the boy's mind is further quickened and enlarged by the study of classics, mathematics, the various branches of science or the principles underlying various industries and manufactures. When the pupil has completed the second stage he is qualified to enter the University.

There he can either take up a course in arts and science, by which he will acquire a greater breadth of knowledge and subtlety of reasoning, or he can enter at once on a course of medicine, law, or engineering, as he chooses, and having completed his course of training he emerges a professional man.

But the great mass of the people are dependent for their education on our State schools, and the system provides for a primary education merely, so that none need be under the irreparable disadvantage of being ignorant of the keys of knowledge. Now, knowledge is power, therefore the education of the masses is increased power in the masses, and like steam applied to machinery, it produces accelerated motion. How does education do this ? It gives increased power to think, and therefore to act. All thought, in the stricter sense of the word, is found when analysed, to consist of two elements :—

1. The noticing similarities in things.

2. The distinguishing differences in things, and these are assisted by the memory and imagination. All minds are fundamentally alike in their action, but the cleverest man is he who makes these discriminations and distinctions most readily and accurately.

Now, the mental operations are performed with greater ease, quickness and accuracy every time they are repeated ; so that the mind, like the

muscles, grows strong by exercise, and is developed most when exercised most. As every study necessitates thinking, the power of the mind as a whole is thereby enlarged, no matter what that study may be. All I see, and hear, and feel, inasmuch as it causes me to think, leaves its impression, good or bad, upon me. "I am a part of all that I have met," and my total environment, in addition to my innate propensities, is responsible for my being what I am to-day. The mind, therefore, partakes of the nature of the food it feeds upon, and, as bad food produces a sickening effect on the body, so improper mental food weakens and poisons the mind. We see, then, that it is essentially necessary that the subject-matter of study should be so carefully selected as to produce the most beneficial results—that is, the most efficient citizen, mentally, morally and physically.

The mind governs our actions, for it is that which feels, and knows, and wills. 1. The mind is that which feels, as when we experience the sensations of coldness or of heat, of pleasure or pain, of love or fear. That is the emotional side of the mind. 2. The mind is that which knows. That is the purely intellectual function of the mind whereby it perceives, reasons and judges. 3. The mind is that which wills. It exercises the power of choice or volition; that is the moral side of the mind.

Any education, therefore, which neglects to properly cultivate any of these three parts of the mind will not produce the efficient man nor the efficient laborer.

The moral and mental forces, then, should be developed, strengthened and controlled by education, and to be a successful student necessitates, like every other success in life, possession of certain moral qualities, *e.g.*, he must be industrious, persevering in difficulty, self-denying—spurning de-

lights and living laborious days—determined to endure to the end. And it is simply these qualities put into actual practice later in life that have enabled men to stamp their marks indelibly on the history of the Empire.

The student may forget the subject-matter of his studies, but the increased power given by them remains fixed in his mind; for the habit of grappling with and mastering difficult problems has given him an increased power to deal with the difficulties of his daily life, a quicker insight into things, and a readier power to adjust the necessary means to the required ends. This is the "permanent residuum" when his school tasks are over. The mind has not been turned into a mere storehouse of words—for "to know merely by heart is not to know at all"—but it has been turned into a workshop; that is, it seeks more and more to find out the *causes* of things. The understanding or intelligence is always brought into play. It is not what was stored up as intellectual fat that is serviceable, but what was turned into intellectual muscle. And this is the education which is of supreme assistance to the laborer, no matter what work he may be engaged in. If a man have not ability to use it, his knowledge is not power at all, but so much dead stock.

The physical education must also be attended to. We need strong bodies in these days of keen competition, and while we seek to give the sound mind, we must also give the sound body. A first requisite, it has been said, for a good man is that he be a good animal, so that every good teacher will attend to the physique of his pupils. It is a most pitiable spectacle to see a man with a vigorous intellect ruined through having overwrought and broken down his constitution.

We see, then, that in our education

we must cultivate the mental, moral and physical powers side by side if we would have the man efficient in the widest sense of the term, but more especially as a laborer. Now, labor is defined as "any action either of mind or body for a definite object." I will not waste your time by showing its uses. You have merely to look around for its monuments. In a word we can sum it up, viz., we are indebted to labor for all the necessities and conveniences of life and all the art and sciences which we possess. Nothing is got without labor. Even the wild fruits and flowers must be gathered, preserved and stored. Oil is abundant, but the whales which yield it are swimming amid the Polar seas. Labor, then, is "the purchase money of all things," and as a rule the more skilled the labor the more valuable are the manufactures. A man also is measured by his capacity to work. "A man is what he does." That labor is honorable and dignified has become a household expression, and this is proved by the fact that the lazy man is an object of universal scorn and contempt. Moreover, labor is an absolute necessity for our progress. If we do not work degeneracy of mind and body as inevitably follow as night the day. There is no such thing as standing still.

It is unnecessary for me to prove that the natural powers of the Colonials are at least equal to those of any other nation. This has been proved over and over again, and London rings with the praise of some of our artists. Other things then being equal, how would you account for any inferiority in the quality of our manufactures? Is it because of any deficiency of skill in the workmanship?

England found that in the London Exhibitions of '51, '61 and '67, that her manufactures were unequal in many respects to those exhibited by

foreign countries, and that, in order to compete with them and hold her supremacy in the commercial world, she must educate her laborers, for "upon lines of equal resistance the weaker go to the wall." The "Made in Germany" scare is not to be treated lightly, and it should act as a warning and stimulus to us; for, as Mr. Scott Russell says about England—"Should the day come when our manufacturers are less skilled, less informed, less able than our rivals, the flood of raw materials to our shores and the back current of manufactures to replace them may take another direction and surge on other shores"—showing the cause of possible decline in her manufactures, and it is worthy of our careful attention.

We are all acquainted with the man of one idea, who will not part with it for fear lest he should never get another, and who sticks to it with an astonishing stupidity and pertinacity. This generally is the result of deficient general education. Of all laborers, the Saxons and Swiss—more especially the Saxons—are preferred, owing to their superior general education, for they comprehend the instructions given them readily, and quickly apply any new methods to their work. There is also less blundering, waste and misdirected labor with the educated laborer, and, therefore, a great aid is afforded to industry.

It is said that volunteers learn their drill much more quickly than the regular troops owing to their superior general education, and statistics taken in Massachusetts proved that the most highly paid were the best educated, and that the wages diminished in a scale corresponding with the inferiority of their education—those who could only make a mark as their signature receiving least of all.

Now, a good general education enables one the more easily to master

any particular trade, and the laborer must be skilled in special craft. There is much truth in the maxim, "He should know something of everything, and everything of something," and the effect of technical skill in the laborer produces surprising results. A skilful artisan will in a few minutes complete a work beyond the powers of a person unacquainted with that art. A professional man every day, almost without conscious effort, disposes of matters which to the unprofessional person seem hopelessly perplexing.

And it is remarkable that these operations which have taken most pains and time to learn are capable of being ultimately performed with marvellous accuracy and ease, *e.g.*, take the athlete with his astonishing gymnastic feats, or the skilled musician for delicate discriminations in sound and touch, or the cook in preparing savory dishes for the epicure. It is the triumph of art to conceal all effort, and this, at times, makes us inappreciative of the degree of skill attained.

How necessary it is that our artisans should become artists in those manufactures which produce the finest combinations of form and color is brought vividly before our minds when we see the finish and beauty in many imported articles. We see these qualities *sometimes* in our own manufactures, but we are too apt to think that because we have a good primary school system, and that none need be unable to read and write, we are, therefore, sufficiently "up to date," and quite equal to any other nation in manufacturing ability. It is to be hoped we are not building a fool's paradise about our heads. Take Switzerland, with its population of over 3,000,000, enclosed in some 16,000 square miles, and compare its educational system with ours. A search was once made there for the

men who could neither read nor write, and they found one, but it was learnt on enquiry that he had come from Savoy. In technical education they are enthusiasts, and have schools for farming, silk weaving, cattle grazing, butter making, horology, etc., and from time to time lectures and short courses of instruction are given in different parts of the country on horticulture, viticulture, fodder-growing, cattle-breeding, etc. Even our sister colony spends double the amount on technical education that we do. The United States spends over 13,000,000 dollars per annum on secondary schools.

What is Victoria doing in the matter of technical education? Very little indeed. The State assistance to the Working men's Colleges is only £12,000 per annum, and we should bear in mind that the cost of our primary schools has been reduced £250,000 per annum in five years.

In our State schools at present the science taught consists merely of a few principles of physics, physiology, and drawing. The curriculum, however, seems sufficiently extensive, though much might be said in favor of increasing the science by including the elements of such subjects as mechanics, chemistry (especially agricultural), metallurgy, domestic economy, etc., and the main principles underlying our chief industries, seeing that we have no secondary schools in which to teach them. Surely such knowledge would be of infinitely more practical benefit to the boy when he leaves school than so much history, geography, etc. He would then go out into the world with his eyes open to the practical value of science as applied to manufacture, and would be stimulated to further explore its fruitful fields.

But our Government is not absolutely dead to our educational requirements. Increased funds, no doubt,

will give greater vitality to the Education Department.

The Agricultural Department, however, seems well awake, and has revolutionized the butter-making industry by teaching the farmers the proper methods of cream separating. Probably we shall get the highest price in the market when we have perfected our manufacture.

Experts are also being employed in our wine-making industry, and our tobacco, cigar, and other manufactures. Some, doubtless, are anxiously looking forward to marked improvement in these productions. Science, then, by enormously increasing the efficiency of labor, makes a corresponding increase in the value of the manufactures and productions. There is, as a direct result, more money to distribute both to the capitalist and to the laborer, *and wages rise accordingly.*

Now, of all studies Mr. Herbert Spencer puts science first. Some reasons are :—

1. It cultivates the *observation*, because the teaching of it is essentially objective ; things are learnt rather than words. The results are manifest to the senses.

2. It cultivates the *judgment*, because it prevents guessing, or jumping, at conclusions.

“The great fault of the community,” Professor Faraday says, “is want of judgment, and it is ignorant of its ignorance ;” and this is due, he says, to want of scientific culture. We can see how science improves the judgment ; for nothing is taken as true until the conclusions from data have been verified by observation and experiment. All prejudice must be laid aside, for the evidence speaks for itself. Seeing is believing.

As for the usefulness of the knowledge so acquired :—(a) It is a knowledge of facts, not of opinion merely. “Necessary and eternal are its

truths, and science concerns all mankind for all time.” (b) Science underlies the fine arts. The artistic workman must know the laws to which the materials conform, *e.g.*, of color, shape, etc. For self preservation the knowledge of physiology is greatly needed ; for industrial purposes, chemistry is essential. There is scarcely an industry in which chemistry is not of service. It is useful in the kitchen ; for cookery, in ventilation, and the sanitary condition of our dwellings ; in agriculture—to economise manures, and to supply the land with what is necessary to the growth of the plant. In physics, “the mother of the sciences,” we all have occasion to use the lever, the pulley, etc. And the general effect of scientific study is thus remarked by Prof. Tyndall :—“When prejudice is thus put underfoot, and the strains of personal bias have been washed away—when a man consents to lay aside his vanity and become nature’s organ, his elevation is the instant consequence of his humility.”

What we owe to science is beyond expression. It has tamed the wild force that rushes through the telegraph wire, harnessed the steam engine to serve man’s purposes, increased commerce by steamboats, railways, electric cars, and in other ways millions now find support owing to it, where before there was only food for thousands. Wandering tribes by its aid have become populous nations, and it has given them comforts which their few naked ancestors never dreamt of. And the daily discoveries tend to show we are not only on the shore of a vast unexplored ocean of knowledge. Yet, students, who have spent years in education, and would blush to pronounce *Iphegènia*, *Iphegenia*, or to show any ignorance respecting the labors of a famous demi-god, show no shame in confessing their ignorance of the functions of the spinal cord, or

the normal rate of pulsation, or how the lungs are inflated. So anxious are they to keep up the traditions of 2000 years ago, they neglect to study the structure and functions of their own bodies.

"Science is only now receiving a grudging recognition. But we are fast coming to the *denouement*, when the positions will be changed, and while its haughty sisters sink into unmerited neglect, Science, proclaimed as highest alike in work and beauty, will reign supreme."

The productiveness of any people is limited by their knowledge of science. One industry is one science and that science on another, and so on. Take Navigation; it depends on astronomy, which in turn depends on the glass manufacture, which again depends on chemistry, and other arts. Industry, then, will be retarded by ignorance of scientific subjects, and the rank and file of our industrial army cannot keep pace with those who possess a better mental equipment in science to help them.

I have directed your attention mainly to the assistance which increased intelligence lends to labor; now I wish briefly to point out that want of education affords great hindrances to industry, for everything which prevents the laborer from using his powers to their fullest extent is a hindrance. Two of the chief of these are the twin sisters, Ignorance and Intemperance. Ignorance leads to crime. The ignorant man cannot enjoy rational amusement. He frequents the public-house, becomes intemperate, and then the aching head and the trembling hand refuse to perform their ordinary labors. Thus ignorance leads to poverty, and poverty leads to crime. Then the tax-payer is put to the expense of supporting gaols and lunatic asylums, thus hindering the industry of the whole community.

Again, education and extreme poverty are two incompatibles.

People who are educated will, as a rule, refuse to herd in these hovels where the ordinary decencies of life are absent, and where the germs of disease find a secure hiding place. Education enables the people to take such hygienic precautions as to prevent the spread of epidemics.

In Cromwell's time the death rate was 70 per thousand per annum, now it is only 22. Life has been made several years longer during the last two centuries, as shown by the statistics of life insurance societies. Sierra Leone has been called "the white man's grave." Yet, now by taking sanitary precautions, the Englishman is as safe there as in his own country.

Again, the want of thrift hinders labor, and this is a mark of the uneducated man. He has not the foresight and prudence of his educated brother. Consequently, when thrown out of work, the State has to bear the additional burden of supporting both him and his family, often for considerable periods.

Now, industry is very largely carried on by co operation, partnerships, and joint stock companies, etc., where trustworthiness is essential to their formation. The savage could never form a partnership; he could not trust the other partner.

We see then how essential it is that an industrial community should be honest and trustworthy, and how any education which neglects to cultivate the moral qualities is sadly at fault.

We, in Victoria, have gone in for secularism with a vengeance, prohibiting Bible-reading except by visitors, and we have also abolished the teaching of moral lessons except such as occur incidentally in the reading books etc. The teacher may, of course, by his example, inculcate the most valuable moral lessons daily. Still, we have no guarantee that the cardinal virtues are taught, and

they should be, either directly, or by being incorporated in the reading-books, either in the form of tales, or other striking illustrations of their application. We should at least aim at a high ideal in this respect, seeing that the mental powers are guided and directed by the moral ones. We see here the scope for good teachers. We should be the living example of justice, benevolence, sympathy, order and industry, and I cannot do better than conclude with the words of Prof. Tyndall regarding the teaching profession :—

“If there be one profession in England of paramount importance, I believe it to be that of the schoolmaster ; and if there be a position where incompetence and ignorance do most

serious mischief by lowering the moral tone and exciting cunning and contempt where reverence and noble truthfulness ought to be the feelings evoked, it is that of a governor of a school. When a man of enlarged heart and mind comes among boys—when he allows his being to stream through them, and observes the operation of his own character evidenced in the elevation of theirs, it would be idle to talk of the position of such a man being honorable. The man is a blessing to himself and all around him. Such men, I believe, are to be found in the country, and it behoves those who busy themselves with the mechanics of education at the present day to find them out.”—*Australasian Schoolmaster*.

ALASKA.

FRANCES M. FERRY.

A REMOTE, frozen, inhospitable wilderness, holding foreign intruders at bay with long, dreary winters and inaccessible mountains—repelling even the native people with its austerity of climate and relief—Alaska remains to-day virtually an uninhabited and unexplored waste, though peculiarly endowed with riches that have long lured the hardy and venturesome to seek fortune within its bounds.

Alaska is divided by nature into three parts : Aleutian Alaska, consisting of the narrow peninsula and volcanic islands south of the Behring sea, whose eruptions winter before last made the whole sea seem ablaze and excited considerable comment, is inhabited by a few piscatory Indians known as the Aleuts. Northern Alaska, the vast territory north of the mountains, embracing that portion of the Yukon basin west of the 141st

meridian, is the Alaska of ice and snow and Esquimaux ; its seas abound in whales and seals, its rivers in salmon and gold. Southern Alaska, which includes the southern and western slopes of the great mountain range whose ridge forms the boundary between British Columbia and Alaska, and mountain ranges separated from the mainland and from each other by deep sea-claimed valleys, has now nearly lost its identity as the home of the Hiada Indians, the land of totem-poles, the theatre of glaciers, the site or rich gold fields, and the background of Sitka, and is for the present the key to the Klondike. In this role it has gained more notoriety than in all others combined, and it is safe to say that thousands who never heard of Muir glacier, the Hiada Indians, Douglas Island, or the Greek church of Sitka, are now familiar with Juneau, Dyea, and Chilkoot pass,

The climate of Alaska is not so severe as might be expected from its latitude, owing to the genial influence of the Kuro Siwo, or Japanese current, and the warm southwest winds. There is a marked difference in the climate of northern and southern Alaska, since the high mountains circling the coast (numbering among them such peaks as Mount St. Elias, Mount Fairweather, Mount Logan) form a wind barrier, protecting the coast region from the bitter northeast winds, and shutting out the warm, moisture-laden winds of the Pacific from the Yukon district, though, fortunately, the rain winds can climb some passes impassible or unknown to man, and their meliorating influence is felt even in that icy region, whose annual temperature is 25 degrees Fahrenheit, and where 70 degrees below in winter is not uncommon. The conditions along the coast are suited to bring about great precipitation, snow-capped mountains intercepting warm, wet winds, and the rainfall is extraordinary. The average is 250 days of rain or snow in a year; fog and mist are continuous, August being the only month when mountain tops are visible. A despondent tourist asked a squaw if it rained all the time at Juneau, and was amazed to hear her reply, made with perfect gravity, "Oh, no; it snows sometimes." Even white people who live there become so used to wet weather that they do not mind it in the least, but on the contrary long for rain if two or three dry days succeed each other.

Southern Alaska supports a scattered Indian population, divided into tribes and sub-tribes. These Indians are of medium height, and are usually fat and comely. The stranger does not at first approve of such abundant flesh and such rich coloring, but soon discovers a change in his standard of beauty by his condemnation of the most robust specimens of his own race

as pale and puny. The men have adopted European dress, but the "kleutchmen" adhere to their comfortable blankets and kerchiefs. They have their vanities, and use a cosmetic in which they have infinite confidence as a preservative of the bloom of youth. It is a solution of charcoal and fish oil, which they smear upon their faces either to improve their complexions or as a sign of mourning. They are fond of beads and bracelets, and their blankets and kerchiefs must be the gayest attainable, but the most brilliant can not cheapen their brown and red faces.

The Indians differ greatly in disposition and morality, and range from the fiercest and most degraded tribes to those that are peaceable and amenable to the influences of civilization. They are lazy and slow, but strong, patient, and enduring, and in such work as weaving, basket making, and carving, surprisingly skilful. The costly and elaborate chilkat blankets, woven by them, are in great demand. They show great dexterity in converting silver coins, with the aid of knife and hammer, into souvenir spoons, neatly finished and engraved with characteristic devices, their baskets are superior in beauty and workmanship to other Indian baskets, and their carvings in wood and stone prove them descendants of the totem-pole makers.

An Alaskan Indian village consists of a line of rude hovels built along the shore just escaping tide line. Each house has a canoe before its door, not a frail birchbark canoe, but a craft capable of holding thirty people, made by hollowing out the trunk of a gigantic cedar. The Indians that attach themselves to white settlements build along the coast in the same way, with their canoes before their doors and their graveyards on the mountainsides back of their houses. Their dwellings vary from the large clan house

Sitka, gaily painted with totems, to the squalid shak with mud floor, in the middle of which burns the fire kindled to serve the three-fold purpose of warming the filthy apartments, cooking the viands, and smoking the winter supply of fish that is suspended on frames where the smoke will find it on its way to the opening in the roof left for it to escape. The odor of an Indian village is something never to be forgotten. The refuse of fish lying about everywhere accounts partially for it.

Alaskan Indians are at home on the water, but avoid the mountains. When it is necessary to go hunting, a canoe loaded with dogs and men (every Indian hut harbors at least a score of dogs) is rowed to the desired place, the dogs are sent up into the mountains to drive down the game which is then shot by the waiting huntsmen.

There are numerous white settlements in Southern Alaska. Sitka, the capital, and Juneau, the metropolis, are chief among them. Sitka is interesting as the seat of government, for its extremely beautiful location, for its quaintness and history, for the Greek church, the old cannon marked with the double-headed eagle, and the ancient log-houses, relics of Russian America, and for its traditions, but it is unique, and in no way characteristic of modern Alaska. Juneau, on the other hand, is typical of the numerous mining towns of mushroom growth that perch upon the mountain sides, wedge their way into valleys, and hang upon the reluctant and inhospitable coasts of that country whose surface will not allow towns to nestle and look at home. It is a compact little hamlet between the sea and dark towering mountains. Across the bay lies Douglas Island, where the famous Treadwell mill is situated, the largest stamping mill in the world. The waters in the harbor of Juneau are rough and colored by the water brought down

from the mines. The lofty mountains, with dark green mantles and ermine caps, rising immediately behind the city would bury it with snowslides were it not for the protection of intervening hills built by avalanches. The village is saved from ugliness by the kindly Alaskan moss which has a wonderful way of softening down plain, graceless outlines, and concealing the newness and commonness of its mean little frame buildings. An old skid road and two or three mud ways, churned where much used to a perfect broth, are all that Juneau has to show in the line of roads, for vehicles are little used in that rough country, and rubber boots are cheaper than pavements.

No permanent improvements are attempted, as Juneau's citizens are there for gain, not to spend; to get rich and go back to their homes in the States.

There are about three thousand whites in Juneau and as many Indians, but it is not an incorporated town and municipal affairs take care of themselves. Stores are open Sunday, the innumerable beer saloons are open seven days in the week and twenty-four hours in the day; music, dancing, and drinking seem never to cease. Whiskey is prohibited by the government, and home-brewed beer is the only drink sold. The miners are a rough class of men, the Indians are evil and sinister looking, and Juneau is pronounced a wicked little town. But it is not wholly bad. It has its mission, churches, and schools, and many of the homes, though small and snug, give evidence of refinement and luxury. Soft carpets, draperies, electric lights, fine china, musical instruments, pictures, books, and polite children are not rare. The stores have a large assortment of goods, quite up-to-date in all departments, offered at prices very little in advance of those demanded in Seattle.

The work going on in Alaska now seems a plundering rather than a developing of the country. A country can only be developed by a people who look upon it as home, and the, at best, semi-civilized Indians are the only ones who so regard Alaska. Our government is doing what it can to save these half-tamed children of the wilderness from the vices and give them some of the benefits of civilization by keeping "fire water" away from them and providing schools for their little ones. These schools are in charge of earnest and efficient teachers and are supplied with the books and school appurtenances in

use in the most progressive schools in the United States. The teachers say that the little Indian children are very successful with manual and artistic work and love it, but make slow work of arithmetic and grammar.

The Christian churches, Greek, Roman and Protestant, are doing their part to enlighten this simple people, but it is doubtful whether, despoiled of game and fish, they can long hold their own against the cruel avidity of the whites who promise to leave Alaska a greater wilderness than they found it.—*Public School Journal*, III.

GOOD CITIZENS.

BY FIDELIS.

WE have all heard much, from time to time, about the importance of religious teaching in our schools—a subject which, as we also know, has been made a brand of discord among our Canadian people. Yet so much excitement on this point seems to be somewhat superfluous, so long as there is so much to be done—and so much generally left undone—in making our schools the means of training good and law-abiding citizens from the most purely moral point of view! Nothing indeed can be farther from the intention of the present writer than to minimize the power of truly Christian training, but let us remember that, in the education of the race, the elementary moral teaching of Sinai preceded, by a long way, the higher spiritual influences of Galilee; and if the A B C of law-abiding citizenship and morality are not taught in our schools, it would be of little practical use to overlay this lack with a veneer of doctrinal generalities, such as make

up too large a proportion of our average Sunday-school teaching.

If the State undertakes to pay for the education of its youthful population, thus relieving individual parents of the expense, and if it compels the same youthful population to attend the schools it has provided, it is clear that the only justification for thus educating the children at the expense of the community must be the education and training of good and useful citizens, who are to build up a future orderly and law-abiding generation. That any State system should aim at no less than this, and should adopt the best possible means of accomplishing its aim, is what the community has a right to expect. Now it is only too evident to careful observers that, with all the spread of education, and all the vaunted improvements of our public school system, the practice of petty offences against law and order—nay, a spirit of reckless lawlessness and defiance of order—are notorious—

ly prevalent among a large section of our youth—growing with our country's growth, and increasing with our population. And the public school is the only place where this rapidly spreading evil can be certainly met in its beginning, and nipped in the bud. Attendance at the Sunday-school is not, of course, compulsory, nor can the character of its teaching be submitted to any State supervision. And we have only to look around us to be aware how hopelessly unfit and unlikely many parents are to meet the evil by a careful and judicious home training.

In these circumstances it ought surely to be one of the very first aims of our school system to correct the deficiencies of parents in the moral as well as intellectual training of their children, by bestowing its most careful attention on the training of good citizens. And to this end, definite teaching on the subject is needed. It is all very well to assemble mass meetings of children in some public place, and teach them to wave flags and cheer, and sing "The Maple Leaf Forever!" It will seldom occur to them to connect this sort of entertainment with the duty of respecting their neighbor's property, and doing their part towards preserving the public safety and order. Nor will it do to trust vaguely to the moral influence of the teacher. No doubt every good teacher's influence will be, to a certain extent, on the side of morality in general, but here again we need something much more definite to be required. Many of our teachers are too young and inexperienced to be really aware of the evils they have to cope with, or even of how they are to endeavor to meet these evils. Moreover, the number of lessons they have daily to hear and the number of subjects they have to teach so fills up both time and mind that it is little wonder if their training in good citizenship is,

in the great majority of cases, overlooked or forgotten.

Now, neither children nor adults can be expected to learn to obey laws of which they are in absolute ignorance, and it is not too much to say that the great majority of our school-children are utterly ignorant of the existence of statutes—and of penalties for breaking them—against which they are nevertheless perpetually transgressing, oftener from sheer thoughtlessness than from any other cause. Their parents themselves are too often so lax in their own morality that they think very little of the matter if their children help themselves to their neighbor's fruit and flowers whenever they feel a desire to do so, and are much aggrieved if the theft is called by its right name. Small boys go about aimlessly seeking amusement for themselves wherever they can find it, and in utter ignorance of the harm they are doing; ignorant, too, that they are law-breakers in so doing—will cut and bark trees, shake and break them when newly planted, and light fires in woods even in times of drought, without the least realization of the serious nature of the offence. They have found their mischievous pranks so often tolerated and treated lightly, that they go on light-heartedly to their destruction of property with no little damage both to private and public well being. Canada has recently had large tracts of country desolated by forest fires, a cause of untold loss throughout her whole past, and we have a statute forbidding the starting of such fires, under a heavy penalty. Yet our children, in general, know nothing of this law, nor do they realize the serious risks involved, and, notwithstanding all our bitter experience, boys go out to the woods and recklessly start fires, for their own amusement, without a thought of possible results. Were they taught the seriousness of such an offence against the law, and the heavy

penalty incurred, it would certainly, in many cases, prevent the offence. Similarly, if they were taught something of the penalties attached to the injuring of trees, and the reason why such penalties are imposed, it would gently tend to check the acts of youthful vandalism, committed in sheer thoughtlessness, from which small places, especially, perpetually suffer. In many places, too, orchard and garden robbing have become such a pest as greatly to discourage small fruit-growers from their too often fruitless labors. A little pointed instruction on this head in school, with a reference to the general conduct of the pupils in giving them pass certificates, would have its perceptible effect on this evil also.

It is growing into an accepted fact that our schools are not for mere book-learning, but for fitting the pupils, as far as may be, for the future duties of life. To this end we are introducing manual training, which is so important to the many who are destined to follow some handicraft for a livelihood. Now, as all our boys and girls are destined, if they live, to the responsibilities of good citizenship, while not one-tenth, in all probability, can be expected to develop into scholars, the training in citizenship is of far greater importance than the training in scholarship. It is of much more consequence to the community whether Tom, Dick, or Harry learns to be an orderly and industrious citizen than that he should be able to interpret Shakespeare, or work out problems in mathematics, which may never be of the slightest use in after life. Why, then, should not our schools become, in the very first place, training-schools for good citizens? Why should not the two kindred principles of truth-telling and keeping one's word be taught as strenuously as the rules of arithmetic? Is not good conduct worth more than

good grammar, since the building of character in the rising generation is the truest wealth a country can possess? Surely, then, we should have in our schools, as the foundation-stone of all true progress, a careful training in plain morality, an endeavor to instil high principles of action, which, if insisted on as an important part of every teacher's duty, would soon have its effect in raising the tone of practical morality among our people, especially in places where this tone is now lamentably low. The intellectual progress would be advanced by the same means, for principle would tell in all studies, and perhaps the wretched practice of "cribbing," which has become such a plague-spot among us, would then be in time stamped out. Why should not there be suspended in every school, in large letters, as the guiding motto, that inspired Golden Rule which is the basis of all social order? Why, in addition to this, should we not also have, plainly printed on large placards, the statutes which bear on such offences against property and person and the dumb animals as boys especially are always prone thoughtlessly to commit? Why should not these be explained and enforced by the teacher from time to time, and examinations occasionally held on them? And, to complete the work, why should we not have a simple text-book on good citizenship and public morality, which should have a prominent place in the school curriculum, and a knowledge of which should count for not a little in the pass examinations? In time, we might thus have a generation somewhat more free, not only from ordinary dishonesty, but also from political corruption and the eager desire to fill individual pockets out of the public funds. In short, we should begin to have truer patriots and better citizens!

As the sources of our immigrat th

widen, the level of home morality is sure to degenerate. We can depend only on our schools for training good citizens. In the past the attention of teachers has been too exclusively turned toward the cultivation of the intellect. Let us hope that signs which he who runs might read will not be disregarded, and that for the pre-

sent we may cease to quarrel about instruction in theology, until we shall have done a little more in the direction of teaching the children in simple morality—in those things which are true and just and lovely and of good report, against which there is no law, and can be no rational opposition.—*The Westminster.*

COMPOSITION AND RHETORIC.

HARVARD COMMITTEE.

THE celebrated series of reports of the Harvard committee on composition and rhetoric, which have caused so wholesome a perturbation in the educational world, has come to an end. There have been four of them, each loaded with dynamite, and the members of the committee, Charles Francis Adams, E. L. Godkin, and George R. Nutter, think that the desired object has been accomplished and that further discussion may be postponed till 1920, or thereabouts. It is difficult to exaggerate the importance of the statement made in the last of these reports, No. 71, that "the attainment of the end it has all along had in view may be assumed. Correct, elementary, written English will in the near future be scientifically taught as part of the primary and secondary education." In brief, the colleges will soon be able to drop the rudimentary work in grammar, spelling and composition which has been forced upon them, and confine themselves to the proper field of collegiate work, while the many graduates of the lower schools who are unable to go to college will no longer be left without a sound training in the use of their mother tongue. It is a long stride forward, and the Harvard committee has had a large share in its accomplishment. In one of its earlier reports, the famous No. 28, the com-

mittee mercilessly exposed the weakness of entering freshmen by giving specimens of their work, reproduced in fac-simile. In its last document it undertakes to show some of the causes of this weakness and to point out the wrong ideals which many schools have adopted in their haste to comply with the sharp lesson from Harvard. To this end all the students in the various English courses at Harvard were requested to describe the work in composition which they had before entering college, and to criticise it in the light of their subsequent experience and instruction. Extracts from the 1,300 papers received have been selected, classified, and published in the present report.

The documents are entertaining and instructive in a high degree, and the reader can readily make allowance for the measure of injustice which could hardly fail to result from setting so many immature young persons to criticise their former teachers. But after eliminating prejudiced criticism, and it should be said that nearly all the papers presented show a commendable fairness of spirit, there is still abundance of evidence of the faulty and ill-judged character of the instruction given. As to the actual attainments of the graduates of secondary schools, the committee finds that while there has been encouraging pro-

gress, there is still plenty of room for improvement: "About 25 per cent. of the students now admitted to Harvard are unable to write their mother tongue with the ease and freedom absolutely necessary to enable them to proceed advantageously in any college course, The requirements for admission to college should be raised to the point of compelling candidates to prepare their examination papers neatly, legibly, and with a certain amount of mechanical facility, including a decent regard for penmanship, grammar, and spelling."

The schools seem to have misunderstood the new college requirements in English, and apparently assume that "the institutions of secondary education are expected annually to send up for admission to college solid phalanxes of potential authors, essayists, and litterateurs," and the committee finds the evidence of misdirected effort and unintelligent zeal to "verge on the pathetic." It is the university, not the preparatory school, the report bluntly proceeds, which has to do with "style" and "individuality," "mass, coherence, and form," with, in a word, that much abused and misused branch of study known in educational parlance as "rhetoric." On the other hand: "The province of the preparatory schools is to train the scholar, boy or girl, and train him or her thoroughly, in what can only be described as the elements and rudiments of written expression,—they should teach facile, clear penmanship, correct spelling, simple grammatical construction, and neat, workmanlike, mechanical execution. And this is no slight or simple task. It certainly, as these papers show, is not generally accomplished now."

But neither all the blame nor all the work must be put upon the shoulders of the special teachers of English. If the documents given in this report prove anything, it is that the

only efficient and satisfactory method of imparting this fundamental mastery of writing is by incidental instruction in connection with other branches of study. Not only is the time that can be given for set work in composition limited, but it is difficult to get the youthful pupil interested in it. It seems to be something quite aside from his school study—a vexatious and burdensome "extra." But if the study of English is carried into every lesson-room, if Latin, Greek, geography, history, and mathematics all are made to contribute their share, quite another face is put upon the matter. Instead of being a polite and supposedly useless accomplishment, to be laboriously tackled once a week, writing becomes the indispensable tool of daily work. The objection invariably made to this suggestion is that there is no time, and so the committee proceeds to demonstrate that all this may be done without loss of time or the expenditure of additional work:

Every other day, for instance, the recitation from the classics would be, not oral, but, as in the college, written. The scholars when they came into the class, would appear with a written translation in their hands. Instead, then, of rendering the lesson of the day orally, as now, such of them as were called on would read from the papers they had prepared. These papers the instructor could take, in the class, glance over them, and satisfy himself as to the execution; the papers of such as were not called upon at that recitation would then be handed to the master for such further examination as he might wish to give to them, or consigned directly to the waste-paper basket; in either case the scholars would have had their drill in preparing the lesson, and their turn to be called upon would come some other day. The whole class is not necessarily called on for

oral recitation now ; it would not be called on for written recitation then. The severe, constant, daily discipline and practice would, all the same, have been undergone ; and the master would have disposed of his work during school-hours.

Of course, this daily exercise in writing should not be a substitute for the special work in English, but only an auxiliary to it. The main point is to make the pen an indispensable tool, to keep the pupil using it till it is as familiar to his hand as a hammer or saw is to a carpenter. And if in ad-

dition to this constant and stringently corrected elementary work, the school-boys can be led to read a great deal of standard English literature, not with any notion of emulating it, or even of analyzing it critically, a task which may be left for maturer years, there need be no fear as to the quality of their preparation. The Harvard committee has pointed out the correct way so plainly and so forcibly that there can be no excuse for schools which fail to perform this modest, but absolutely essential work.—*Public Opinion.*

STATE TEXT-BOOKS.

AT the recent meeting of the Pennsylvania State Association of School Directors, Mr. William McGeorge, Jr., of Cynwydd, Montgomery county, discussed the question, "Should the State Control and Publish School Text-Books?" He said, in part :

What does this question presuppose and involve? It may mean either that the state edits, manufactures and supplies text-books ; or that the state simply selects them. Whichever horn of the dilemma its advocates may take, they are thereby making one of the most deadly assaults possible upon the integrity and efficiency of our school system.

It is amazing that this book question be seriously proposed so near the beginning of the twentieth century, even if there were no experience to draw upon. But what can it mean to-day, in the face of the unanimous testimony of the school men of Vermont, and Maryland, and California, and Oregon, and Minnesota, and Indiana—everywhere that it has been tried—to the effect that the working of such laws in any form produces evil, and only evil results.

How has "uniformity" worked where it has been tried? If human testimony is worth anything, the educators who have watched the working of these books should know them. Hear what they say. One superintendent in Minnesota says : "Our text-book system has retarded the true progress of the schools." Another : "If every trial exhausts some tempting form of error, then truly the experience of this state should deter others from experimenting in the school-book business." Still another : "I do not think state uniformity is desirable ; the books are not uniform here, as the state books have been laid aside for something better." And so on, indefinitely.

Hon. B. G. Northrup, ex-secretary of Connecticut State Board of Education, says : "The lessons of experience are decisive upon this point. The states which have tried this sovereign remedy of enforced uniformity have found it worse than the disease. Wherever such a law has been fairly tried it has soon been repealed."

Ex-State Supt. Henry Rabb, of Illinois, says : "It has been frequently tried in other states, and uniformly

failed, whether the books have been manufactured, purchased, or selected by state authority."

Indiana and California tells the same story. Uniformity is not desirable, even were it possible. Every community should have the right to choose such text-books as are adapted to its needs. And the power to change text-books should also be carefully preserved and surrounded by every possible safeguard. Even the inert soil wants a change of manure and products.

Does the idea of economy or cheapness attract you? When were excellent school books ever so cheap as they are to-day? But on this question let us see what those who have tried it say of the plan:

In California, the state printer estimated that he could produce 500,000 text-books for \$89 000. Before he had published 187,000 volumes, he had expended \$357,000, and like Oliver Twist, was asking for more.

In Indiana, a few years ago, a law was passed, providing for the state publication of text-books. After the lapse of some time, a partial list was made, which extended only to the lower grades of pupils. The high school books, as before, were furnished by publishers. This list of books, which were to be published according to law, was first published by a syndicate, or school book company, as it was called, and after operating a year or two, the company sold out to the American Book Company, and the greater portion of the school book trade of the state of Indiana is now under the control of the last named company.

In Minnesota, the verdict of superintendents and other experts reads thus: "The books are inferior in manner of presenting subjects and in general make-up." "Nobody except the contractor and a few in his interest likes the books—and why should they not?" "They are more

expensive, because they do not satisfy the requirements." "It discourages competition; it favors monopoly; the law was conceived in corruption, and passed in the interest of the jobber, who needed a contract and got it." "The state books are shams, in matter and make." "There is no real saving to the people." "As to the cheapness of books, there has never been a time, since long before this law was contemplated, that superior books to those furnished by the contractor could not have been purchased at as good figures."

To sum up the whole question, this scheme of state uniformity in text-books has been a failure wherever tried. It has not, could not, and would not reduce the cost. School books now are the cheapest books published. It would be absolutely impossible for the state to make books as well as those furnished by the publishers, and each community should be considered able and competent to choose its own text-books. Remember text-books grow; they are not and cannot be made to order, and therefore it is ridiculous to suppose the wisest committee could at once originate improved books. This idea of uniformity bars all progress. Text-books produced under such a system are so poor that they prevent mental development. They stimulate teachers to violate law and get around the prescribed text-books, and even the most advisable and necessary changes cannot be made without the consent of the contractor.

In conclusion, have you considered what would be the effect of adopting any set of books, however good, on the children? Have you stopped to consider the cost to them, and the injury done to a whole generation in its education? If a set of books are adopted for a given number of years, would there, or could there be any improvement? If books *must* be bought

of him, would the contractor spend money to improve them? Remember, that once this monster gets a hold on you—once let these books in—and they will be like the Old Man of

the Sea; you will be unable to shake them off. For the sake of the schools, for the sake of the children, let us unanimously protest against any and all such legislation.

THE SECURE HOLD OF EDUCATION.

ONE of those controversies about education which break out from time to time, no one knows how, is now raging in England. Everything seems to be quiet, all the principles settled, the schools and the universities going serenely about their work; when suddenly all is confusion and turmoil. The trouble usually arises from a radical or startling utterance by some innovator or lover of paradox. He perhaps questions or denies one or more of the fundamental theories of modern education. Thereupon the whole learned world at once agog; the air is thick with big-wigs and lexicons; the entire subject of education is threshed out again, to the last straw, with a young zeal as if nothing had ever been said or written about it before. Then a long breath is drawn, and quiet reigns again until the next disturber of the peace comes along.

Prof. Mahaffy appears to have been the one to fire the train this time. He chose the occasion of giving some prizes at Mason College, Birmingham, not to congratulate the lucky recipients on their attainments and advantages, but to take up a doleful parable against modern education in general. He doubted if the schools gave as good an education as they did thirty years ago; at any rate, he had discovered frightful ignorance among graduates of his acquaintance. Anyhow, even if the education of to-day were skilfully conducted, what were its results? He had himself known students of his own in Trinity College, Dublin, to turn out remark-

able criminals. Did that not argue something wrong with the system? He modestly said nothing about what it argued in the teachers. But, however that might be, he had the gravest doubts whether the diffusion of education had diffused morality or happiness. We looked about, and on all hands what did we see? Discontent, degeneracy, loose thinking and looser morals, wretched lives, and a hopeless outlook.

Perhaps the most effective comment upon these gloomy remarks of Prof. Mahaffy's was that made a little later by the Duke of Devonshire in opening a new technical school. He declined to enter into an abstract discussion of the question whether education was essential or really conduced to happiness. The practical truth to recognize was that the people had pronounced for popular education, and that, therefore, it must go on. They have the power to decide, and they will never decide to allow themselves or their descendants to fall back into the state of general ignorance which marked the time when, some are saying, people were happier, if more ignorant. The secure hold of education in the modern world is due to the fact that, whether or not it makes people happier or better, it is necessary for them, if they are to continue to exist. Thus education takes its place as a necessary part of the struggle for existence.

This is, of course, especially true of technical education. Science and art enter more and more intimately into the conduct of every one of our

great industries. If they are to continue, and to support the masses of the population that depend upon them for a livelihood, they must be more and more profoundly studied. Methods, processes, machines must be given the highest efficiency. That means necessarily a trained body of workers. It has been conclusively proven that the growth of German manufacturers, and of German manufactures, and of German exports of manufactured goods, is due primarily to the application of German science to the business. It is not tariffs, high or low, not trade either following or preceding "the flag," not reciprocity, nor any other kind of jugglery, but just the plain, downright putting of highly specialized knowledge at the service of manufacturers, which has raised the hue and cry about "made in Germany."

Into this question of competition and of comparative national superiority it is not necessary to enter. But it should be reassuring, to those who sometimes feel doubtful if our present enthusiasm for education will continue thus to be reminded of its powerful grip on the life of the world. The more complex life becomes, the more varied and specialized the pursuits of men, so much the stronger is the hold of education. To be thoroughly in-

structed in the scientific comprehension of arts and crafts is necessary not simply to their flourishing, but to their very existence. A flagging of attention or intelligence in one country means the instant forging to the front of another; so that, at least as regards technical education, its fostering and success link themselves to the very life of the nation.

This assured, the rest is assured. Technical education builds itself upon and implies general education. Successful industries mean wealth and comfort and leisure; and those mean, in selected minds at least, the higher intellectual pleasures. "Shall we have Latin verse writing?" is a question lately brought up in England. Well, if we have a broadly based popular education, and a science and industry nourished by the best results of study, we shall also have those who pursue the recondite or the ornamental in education. The two things go together. At any rate, it is idle to talk of the good old times of contented ignorance and unquestioning faith. Their grace, if they had any, is that of a day that is dead. All that remains for us is to make better new times out of the insatiate curiosity and scrutinizing inquiry which have come into the world to stay.—*The Evening Post.*

THE POETS OF OLD ISRAEL.

Old Israel's readers of the stars,
I love them best. Musing, they read,
In embers of the heavenly hearth,
High truths were never learned below.
They asked not of the barren sands,
They questioned not that stretch of
death:

But upward from the humble tent
They took the stairway of the hills:

Upward they clomb, bold in their trust,
To pluck the glory of the stars.
Faith falters, knowledge does not
know,

Fast, one by one the phantoms fade:
But that strange light, unwavering,
lone,

Grasped from the lowered hand of God,
Abides, unquenched, forevermore.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

" Deliver not the tasks of might
 To weakness, neither hide the ray
 From those, not blind, who wait for
 day,
 Tho' sitting girt with doubtful light.

" That from Discussion's lips may fall
 With Life, that, working strongly
 binds—
 Set in all lights by many minds,
 So close the interests of all."

The mid-winter holidays have come and gone and our readers have again returned to their labors. One sympathizes with them in their work. And when we make a retrospect of the past year's movements in favor of an improved education for Canada, we feel that the activities which have been inaugurated are not likely to waver until our common country takes the highest place among the nations, as a progressive education of educational forces. The favor with which the proposal to establish a National Educational Bureau at Ottawa has been received, indicates the tendency towards a national unification of interests that is to be met with in the various provinces, and when the proposal comes to be thoroughly understood by those who are in a position to give it a practical turn, it will not be difficult to foretell how readily it will be hailed by all as *un fait accompli*, bearing with it a much more desired concentration of national interests. The provinces of Quebec and Manitoba, so busy with the setting of their own houses in order, can hardly be expected to give much heed to a problem that involves an outer progress. Yet when these provinces come to understand that the functions of a central Bureau of Education cannot possibly interfere with their provincial rights, they will no doubt join ardently with the other sections of the Dominion in a scheme that is sure to promote the most wholesome of national sentiments.

About two years ago there was con-

siderable discussion in the Educational Association of Ontario on the question of post-graduate studies at the University of Toronto. The current of expressed opinion then was rather against post graduate studies, and in favor of more emphatic concentration upon the ordinary Arts course leading to the B.A. degree. The establishment of a course of studies leading to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy has been announced by the University of Toronto. In the very nature of things such a step was inevitable. The young men of Canada must have an opportunity of following their inclination in the matter of learning; and this granted, the degree follows, as a matter of course. Many students, after taking their B.A. in Canada, went to other countries for research; to the Universities of Great Britain, Germany, and United States of America. This desire for knowledge is worthy of high commendation. The experience and enlargement of view obtained by residing for a year or two at the Universities of Great Britain, for instance, are of inestimable value to a man, and therefore beneficial to any country whose sons spend time and money in this way. But many are not able to go from home for this laudable purpose of post-graduate work, and are just as desirous and capable as those who can. Therefore it becomes a matter of necessity, we may say, to make provision for them, a much larger class than the former. We are aware that post-graduate work, more or less, has been in operation at sev-

eral Universities in Canada for a few years past. The University of Toronto has formally set forth the work to be done and the attendance required as a prerequisite for the obtaining of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. This is unquestionably a large undertaking. Our earnest hope is that the University may find plenty of money and men competent to justify her in her bold venture.

In our last issue we referred to the Manitoba School Question, and late events have not turned us away from the general opinion that the settlement of the educational affairs of that province is no longer a political question, but a social one, and may now safely be left in the hands of the people of Manitoba themselves. Federal or foreign interference is now not likely to have much weight in the counsels of a Province that has made up its mind to provide for its rising generation the very best that is going, in the way of a common school education. There will no doubt be amendments to the laws and forms of administration as time goes on, some of them possibly to be looked upon as privileges by some and disadvantages by others. But the question is now happily out of the hands of the politicians and the professional issues at stake, will of a certainty, remove the differences of opinion, further and further from the political arena; and the sympathy of a common provincial educational policy, will just as surely, in the near future seek for an outer sympathy in the interlinking of professional interests that a Central Dominion Bureau of Education is sure to promote. Indeed the men who have charge of the educational systems of the various provinces, were among the first to sympathize with the objects for which the Dominion Association of Teachers was first organized, and as a practical outcome

from the work of such an association there can surely be no more worthy project than the organization of the Dominion Bureau of Education.

The educational affairs of Quebec, are evidently again in the hands of the politicians, and it is hardly safe to say how they will fare before they have again been relegated to the constituted authorities who have had the handling of them so long. During the discussion of the new Bill in the Legislature many things were said that perhaps had better have been left unsaid, while many things were said that showed how little our public men sometimes know of the measures that tend to improve a school system. The main question under discussion was whether there should be a Minister of Education or a superintendent; a thesis that is not unfamiliar to the people of Ontario, and one that is never likely to be permanently settled to the satisfaction of all, unless when a good man and a conscientious happens to hold the reins in the Education Department.

TEACHERS.

The total number of teachers in Manitoba in 1896 was 1,143; in Ontario 8,158; in Manitoba 585 men were in charge of schools, and 558 women; in Ontario the numbers were 2,695 men and 5,465 women. In Manitoba the average salary paid in rural schools was \$411.85, in Ontario the average salary was for men \$408, and for women \$298 including cities, towns, etc. Not infrequently we find such as the following in our public prints:—

"Teachers wanted for—school, salary \$250." We in Ontario are expected to be proud of our school system. Yet such advertisements as the above are not uncommon in our newspapers. Just think of it! A man or

a woman whose education, if he or she is at all qualified for such a position, must have cost many years of hard study, and hundreds or thousands of dollars wanted at considerably less remuneration than that of a washer-woman ! And yet this is not the worst. In hundreds of cases the advertisements read, "state salary expected," which has the effect of a Dutch auction, giving the most responsible and important position of moulder of the characters of young Canadians during the most susceptible period of their lives, to the lowest bidder. What does the reader suppose is the average age of the ten thousand or more teachers in the public schools of Ontario ? According to a recent statistical calculation, it is not far from twenty-six.

Let our readers ponder over the above facts, and think what do these facts indicate. Is it possible, we ask our thoughtful men and women, to have the services of men and women of spirit and power for such salaries ? Is there any investment which a parent can make all the year, to be compared with a competent and experienced teacher for his child : monies, lands, securities, will, many a time, involve bitter memories, or pass away, but the memory of a good teacher remains for life and doubtless beyond and is fruitful for all good works. The Canada EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY has always pleaded with the country to treat its teachers considerately, even generously and the country's reward will be above rubies.

In a late article, our contemporary, *The Educational Review*, makes out an indictment against the schools of St. John, New Brunswick, which though formulated in a mild tone, the citizens of that town cannot very well afford to overlook. And not only St. John, but several other cities of our Dominion, might take a hint from what our *Confrere* says : "There is

in the latter city (St. John) more of what we term educational waste. Its schools take up a new idea or subject, pursue it eagerly for a few weeks or months, and drop it. A few years ago the teachers were instructed in the Tonic Sol-fa system at the trustees' expense. Little attention is now paid to that system. Again, clay modelling was entered upon vigorously for a time. It, too, has gone. The departmental system of instruction was pursued in the high school. A return has been made to the old system of each teacher attempting to teach all the subjects of his or her department. Meetings of teachers were once regularly held in which special subjects were taught by teachers well versed in those subjects, or by specialists. That, too, has lapsed. One man fills two offices—principal of the high school and city superintendent. That would do for a country town of four or five thousand inhabitants, but not for a city of 45,000. Here are some examples of educational waste, and we might cite others. They do some of these things better in Halifax." And though comparisons generally are not looked upon with favour, the editor proceeds to make one all the same between the two rival cities of the Maritime Provinces. "Again," says he, "there is a very good manual training school in Halifax, where hundreds of boys receive instruction, and there is a cooking schools for girls. There is a well-conducted kindergarten school in Halifax and another in Dartmouth. St. John is at present without any of these appliances of modern education. The meetings of school trustees in Halifax are open, not only to the press, but to any one interested who may choose to attend. The chairman is elected yearly by the votes of his brother commissioners, and it is an office to which any commissioner may aspire. In St. John the chair-

man is appointed by government and holds office for four years, and meetings are not open to the press."

The teachers of the Dominion are after all not to be precluded from judging for themselves of the respective merits of some of the school histories submitted to the judges in the late Canadian History Competition. When certain defects of the book finally selected were pointed out by one of our educationists in the Montreal Convention, the self-appointed secretary of the commission made a personal matter of the criticism and threatened the critic with a law suit, or something of that kind for uttering anything but the highest praise on the work the judges had chosen. The arguments he chiefly used were that the book was a cheap book, since it cost only fifty cents, and must be a good book, for the judges were good men. But what will the indiscreet secretary say, or what law-suits is he going to threaten to throw at our teachers' heads should they continue to institute a comparison between the selected text-book and Roberts' History in

favour of the latter as they are already beginning to do, or what ecstasy of indignation is he going to indulge in should Calkin's History (one of the books entered in the competition and now in the press) come to be preferred in Nova Scotia to both of them. The author of Clement's History and its publishers should place the secretary of the competition under surveillance, or rather should induce him to spend his spare time in preparing an audit sheet of the expenses of the commission and let our teachers judge for themselves as to the merits of the book the judges selected. They are busy comparing Clements' and Roberts', and when Calkin's appears they will be in a position to say whether the judges did their work of selection well or not, outside of Mr. Patterson and his threats of law suits.

Akin in spirit to an editorial of last month is the paper by Fidelis from the *Westminster*. In our opinion both these indicate the line of improvement most needed, one which has been much overlooked for years. It is high time we should mend our way in this regard.

CURRENT EVENTS AND COMMENTS.

The keen competition in foreign markets, which is now being encountered by the British manufacturer, has once again directed attention to the very excellent system of technical education which has proved one of the most potent agencies of success to his German rival. As is well known, a course of elementary education is compulsory throughout Germany. It is otherwise, however, with the technical branches of education, the study of which is left voluntary. As, however,

workmen who wish to qualify for the position of foreman in a factory must needs be provided with a certificate of technical efficiency, very large numbers of artisans and other workers attend either day or evening classes to obtain the necessary instruction. For the most part the technical institutes are supported partly by the exaction of small fees from the pupils and partly by grants from the state. In some instances students are only admitted after they have worked for

two years at the trade they propose following. There are special schools or courses for the teaching of agriculture, textile manufactures, building trades, mechanical engineering, chemical technology and the like. In some places classes are held on Sundays for the benefit of those workmen who cannot attend during the week, either by reason of all their time being occupied or because of the distance at which they live from the institute. That these educational advantages have enabled the manufacturing population of Germany to overtake and in some cases surpass the British workmen in various industries is undeniable.

During the last forty years great strides have been made in England by the establishment of local art and technical classes in connection with and under the control of the Science and Art Department at South Kensington. These classes are, as a rule, well attended, but, except as regards the art and designing teaching, the latter is largely theoretical, and the designation "technical" seems to be somewhat misapplied. The German schools are essentially practical, and there is no difficulty apparently in obtaining a full attendance of students. The British workman, on the other hand, has a deep-rooted aversion to sacrificing any portion of his leisure to the task of improving his knowledge or practising new devices in his business, hence, of the numerous pupils at the classes of the science and art department, comparatively few are actual workmen, while, as noted above, it is generally a "sine qua non" at German technical schools that the student should have some manual experience as a tradesman before being eligible to admission. One result has been that within a very recent period German firms have become competitors against old-established British companies for the supplying of foreign

markets with locomotives, steam engines, engineering tools, and so forth. Again, the manufacture of hosiery, which was formerly a staple trade in Nottingham, has now to a large extent been monopolized by Saxon weavers, who are enabled by their skilled training to give better workmanship, improved designs and a cheaper finished article. This statement is equally true of glove-making, a business which has literally been destroyed in Nottingham through German competition.—*Montreal Witness*.

There were three great elements of education. First there was information which would be directly useful for their career in life. Then there was the element of training—those subjects which they taught not for their direct use, but because they exercised the reasoning powers of the mind, because they were to the mind what gymnastics were to the body. Then in the third place there was culture. Under that head he included not merely the refinement of taste which was brought about by the study of the arts, but the mental improvement which followed the reading of all that was best and loftiest in literature, and they might add to that the study of history, which enabled them to form their own ideas upon political and social subjects.—S. James, Head Master of Rugby.

THE WESTMINSTER CONFESSION.

OUR Presbyterian brethren have just been commemorating in meetings, and by lectures and addresses, the 250th anniversary of the adoption of the Westminster Confession by the Church of Scotland. As English Churchmen, who desire to see a drawing together of the

churches of England and Scotland, we ought certainly to be anxious to acquaint ourselves better with the history and doctrinal standards of those with whom we would have closer relations. Certainly the ignorance which prevails and the gross misrepresentations of the doctrinal standards of other churches which find a place in some of our "church papers," are not conducive to friendship, much less to unity.

Then there are special points in the origin and history of the Westminster Confession which ought to commend it to the study of English Churchmen. The great Assembly to which it owes its existence was summoned in 1643 by the authority of the English Parliament. It was intended to include all parties in the English church, except the extreme High Church or Laudian, whose sacerdotalism and despotism had been the chief cause of the troubles in Church and State. All its members, with few exceptions, were in English orders; the great majority of them were not averse to a moderate episcopacy upon the lines laid down by Archbishop Usher. Among the Episcopalian members recommended by Parliament were Archbishop Usher, Bishops Brownrigg, Westfield, and Prideaux, and five doctors of divinity, two of whom afterwards became bishops.

Unfortunately most of these were excluded from attendance by the king's command. Dr. Heatley was the only one who was present throughout. Archbishop Usher is said to have been present upon one occasion, but upon doubtful authority, and his influence appears throughout the Confession. As Schaff observes: "In England Episcopacy and the Prayer Book were identified with the Reformation and Protestant martyrdom, and hence were rooted in the affections of the people." Had the

Episcopalians been permitted to remain, and had not their abstention been followed by the influx of the strong Scottish influence, embittered against Episcopacy by Laud and the star-chamber, the probability is that the Assembly would have declared in favour of Episcopacy.

But while the members of the Assembly differed in their views of Church government, they were doctrinally united. They were Augustinians or Calvinists, but not of an extreme Supralapsarian type. The first intention was to revise and enlarge the Thirty-Nine Articles, but after ten weeks, in which fifteen of the Articles were revised and adopted, the revision was suspended in order to take up the subject of Church government. Through Scotch influence it was not resumed, and a new Confession was resolved upon. But this new Confession was largely based upon the Articles of the Irish Church. These Irish Articles, one hundred and two in number, were drawn up by Archbishop Usher. He incorporated in them the substance of the Thirty-Nine Articles; and they received the formal sanction of the first convocation of the Irish Church. These Articles formed the basis of the Westminster Confession which follows the same order and embodies very largely their phraseology. Dr. Hoyle, Archbishop Usher's friend, and Professor of Divinity at Dublin, was a leading member of the committee of the Westminster Assembly which drew up the Confession.

Thus we see that the Westminster Confession is closely related to our Thirty-Nine Articles. It embodies the substance of the chief doctrinal Articles. The fuller and more definite and pronounced statements of the Confession are taken from the Irish Articles of Archbishop Usher, who, like Bishop Jewel, the final editor of the Thirty-Nine Articles, was a doc-

trinal Puritan. In the doctrine of the Sacraments the Confession does not differ a hairbreath from the doctrine of our Articles and that of the venerable Hooker. In the great doctrines of God, the Trinity and the Person of Christ, it reasserts the doctrines of the ancient creeds, but in a more complete form. The chief difference will be found in the doctrine of the Divine Decrees and the mysteries of the Divine predestination. On these points our Articles are of the type of the more moderate and cautious Augustinianism of Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer. The Westminster Confession, gives a more scholastic and elaborate presentation, but it is noteworthy that on these points it follows most closely the Irish Articles, whose very wording is largely adopted. Those who talk so superciliously of this historical document ought to read Dean Stanley's eloquent eulogy of it, an expression of admiration all the more remarkable because it proceeds from one who had but scant sympathy with much of its doctrinal teaching. E. V.

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES— JANUARY.

THOS. LINDSAY, TORONTO.

THE present month is quite noticeable for the lunar phenomena presented, and the observer who follows the moon throughout this lunation will be certainly repaid. On the 7th of the month there is an eclipse, interesting on account of the small part of the disc that is immersed in the earth's shadow, about one-sixth; the first contact occurs at 6 47 p.m., and the series of ring-plains that form such prominent features of the moon's south polar regions will be seen, one by one, to be darkened by the umbra. On the 14th, a day be-

fore the last quarter, the moon passes south of Jupiter, both coming to the Meridian at about the same time, five o'clock in the morning. On the 18th the slender crescent of the waning moon, far south, passes below Saturn, and on the 20th the keen observer may get our satellite in the same telescopic field with Mars. The total eclipse of 21st January is, of course, out of our way, but several expeditions have been arranged to go from England to the west coast of India, where the duration of totality will be greatest. It is evident that the interest in phenomena of this kind is far from dying out, when steamship companies make special rates for astronomers and others who wish to journey some thousands of miles to see the sun's corona for about two minutes. Our time will come soon, we can patiently wait till May, 1900, and then arrange for an expedition to the Southern States.

On Jan. 30th about midnight there is an occultation of the Pleiades by the moon, and the only one of the year visible in this locality. Apart from the interest which the motion of the moon has for the mathematician, there is always a field for the amateur to sketch the more prominent features of the disc. At the present time the great observatories of Paris and Mt. Hamilton are making photographs of the moon on an enlarged scale. The reproductions are beautiful, yet one must still feel that the picture is not—the moon. The most perfect photographs fall immeasurably short of the telescopic view, and in many respects are inferior to skilful drawings.

Mercury will be at its greatest elongation west of the sun on the morning of Jan. 28th. The difference is twenty-five degs., but the declination of the planet is far south, consequently it will be low in the horizon and not easily seen. Venus will be

quite too close to the sun to be easily visible ; we must wait now till the fall of the year to see the planet as a brilliant evening star. Saturn is still passing south, but the angular diameter of the disc is slowly increasing, while the system is broadly in view. The elevation of the Earth above the plane of the ring is 26 degs. Jupiter is also increasing in apparent diameter and rising at a more convenient hour. Towards the end of the month the planet rises at 10 o'clock. The phenomena of the satellites, which are calculated generally to minutes only, are given with great exactness in the cases of eclipses. For example, on January 26th at 11h. 17m. 11s., Washington time, the fourth satellite reappears from eclipse, starts into view out of the planet's shadow suddenly, like a new star. The computers of the ephemeris are pretty sure of their ground when they name seconds. The calculations for the satellites are made by Prof. H. D. Todd, of Washington. The observer need only have his watch carefully corrected and his telescope in order, to prove the marvellous accuracy of these predictions. The disappearance into the shadow on that evening occurs before the system is above the horizon for observers here.

During the discussions on the new Education Bill of Quebec, it was pointed out by the Premier that free tuition was not a matter to be considered until the finances of the province were in a more prosperous condition. It is very pleasant, however, to learn from the Chairman of the Protestant Board of School Commissioners of the city of Montreal that there are hundreds of children belonging to the schools under the supervision of that Board from whom fees are not required. The following is his statement in full : " Rev. Principal MacVicar, Chairman of the Protestant

Board of School Commissioners at their monthly meeting this morning, referred in an informal manner to the remarks recently made in the press in reference to some cases of children of poor parents being compelled to go without any educational training on account of the inability of their parents to provide the necessary funds. He remarked that the situation seemed to be greatly misunderstood in some quarters. There were, he said, a large number of children educated by the Protestant Board free of charge, and regular blanks were procurable, which, upon being filled in by a clergyman or any responsible citizen, attesting to the indigency of the case, secured to such children all the educational privileges of other pupils. The records were then looked up in connection with the informal discussion, and it was found that of the 8,000 children attending Protestant schools, over one-sixteenth of that number are educated free on account of the poverty of their parents." In this connection Mayor Wilson Smith remarked that no poor children are debarred from the Protestant Schools. He thought that the subject was very much misunderstood, judging by the remarks which had been made in reference to some cases which have recently come to light.

The annual report of the Protestant Board of School Commissioners has been issued, and contains many items of interest to the general public. It gives the number of schools under the control of the Board as fifteen, with an actual attendance of 7,706 pupils, or, including the McGill Model School and the Baron de Hirsch Institute, 8,472 pupils. The receipts on income account for the year ending June 30th, 1897, amounted to \$218,429, and the disbursements, \$205,373. Of the receipts, \$153,786 were derived from the city school tax,

\$34,732 from High School fees, and \$22,508 from jubilee school fees. Of the disbursements, \$151,685 were expended in maintaining the various schools, and \$22,400 went to pay the interest on bonds.

The *Oxford Magazine* publishes some interesting figures to show that the old universities are holding their own in supplying useful candidates for the various civil service examinations. Out of one hundred successful competitors for Home, Indian and Colonial posts, no fewer than eighty-six are Oxford and Cambridge men. Oxford is far ahead with fifty-seven, the light blues scoring twenty-nine

places. The second notable point proved by the statistics is the diminishing influence of the "crammers," who "seem to be settling down more and more into the position of supplements rather than of substitutes for ex-university training." Only two candidates out of the hundred remained for three or four years with the special trainer. It is also worthy of remark that the athletes are well to the fore, with three football "blues" and a long list of cricketers, footballers and oarsmen who have represented their colleges. The examiners have expressed themselves as highly satisfied with the average physical calibre of the successful candidates.

SCHOOL WORK.

SCHOOL-BOY BLUNDERS.

THERE are several ways in which the commonblunder of a school-boy may be taken; several points of view from which it may be regarded. We have noticed of late a somewhat disquieting tendency on the part of certain periodicals to exploit this subject as a branch of literature. In such cases the writer (usually a school inspector or examiner) takes up, as a rule, a rather pharisaical position. He introduces his anecdotes to us with a covert sneer. He stands on a plane above and totally separate from that of the unfortunate culprit whom he holds up to ridicule. He is, in fact, a superior person, and he gives you to understand, by implication, that he himself could never at any time have perpetrated any of the solecisms he describes. We are quite prepared to believe him. To make a good, a really delightful blunder, certain qualities are necessary. It is not, as is commonly sup-

posed, your dull boy who perpetrates the truly comic reply. Now and again, led by some blind chance, he may possibly stumble upon a happy mistake, even as a dull man may be choicely sarcastic unawares. But to delight the hearer for all time with that blending of the audacious, the unfortunate, and the unexpected, requires little short of genius, and genius is a quality but rarely discoverable by school inspectors and their like. Good, worthy men, they despise what they cannot understand; they hold up to shame words they themselves would have never had the wit to utter.

Our standpoint, then, shall be a different one from this. We would approach the subject curiously, but sympathetically. Indeed, few processes are more interesting to trace than the working of the human mind towards the solution of any problem. How marvellous often is the ingenuity we see displayed! How indomitable the resource! Hampered as he is by

difficulties, reduced for the most part to the stony path of mere intuitive perception, often to no path at all—with nothing, as we say, to go upon—nevertheless shall we see the sturdy British youth overcoming all obstacles, evolving from somewhere or other a plausible working hypothesis, and ultimately producing in triumph to his question (no matter how ignorant of the subject he may be) an answer of some sort or other. Truly the boy who can accomplish this may be said to display, if not genius, at least ingenuity. Certain sterling qualities are his—self-confidence, pluck, readiness, and a sanguine love of attempting the apparently impossible. Such a boy is not likely to fall behind in the race for wealth and honours; and yet, so singular are the ways of men, we find him often receiving kicks rather than halfpence, a dose of sarcasm (good-humoured at the best) instead of hearty praise. “Hamlet,” we remember hearing a boy say on one occasion, “is the leg of a small pig.” Observe the simplicity, the neatness of this reply, betraying also a reasonable share of knowledge. No boy who could make that answer could be altogether a fool. He possessed the information, not universally known, that the suffix “let” betokened a diminutive. In fact, a reasonable degree of literature is indispensable for most of the blunders at which we are asked to mock. Old heads cannot be looked for on young shoulders, nor can we reasonably expect our pupils to become perfectly wise at one plunge into the educational bath. Imperfect information is not a crime. “The Nile,” another boy has said, “is the only remarkable river in the world. It was discovered by Dr. Livingstone, and rises in Mungo Park. The mistake is natural enough; the information displayed is unusual, yet some such slight confusion is enough to set our wiseacres laughing

with complacent contempt. Again, “bungalow” is not a word one often meets with at a tender age. To confuse it with “punkah,” is not only natural, it is even creditable; yet the boy who defined it as “a machine for pumping air into a house at night,” was not improbably punished for his attempt at translation. So, too, a “gudgeon” might very well be a “policeman’s staff,” or a “quarantine” a four-masted ship” in the eyes of boys whose acquaintance with bludgeons and brigantines had, fortunately for themselves, been limited. We might instance scores of similar definitions, the only fault of which lay in a knowledge not yet made perfect; but we have mentioned sufficient, we fancy, to make out our contention. It is not our wish to enter into competition with the common run of jest collectors, though it is true—and sad—that such miscellanea of mistranslations and misunderstandings are popular with the reading public of the day. That this should be the case is surely something of a reflection on the morals of magazine consumers, for it is obvious that the sole reason of this popularity is pride. To be able to assume an attitude of mental superiority, to chuckle softly to oneself at the extraordinary mistakes these half-educated boys can make, this seems to us to be the chief cause of the public’s delectation. It may be thought, perhaps, that with the rapid spread of our modern system of free education we shall hear less of these unfortunate mistakes. Surely, with all our new apparatus for cramming the youth of the country with science as they cram chickens for the table, with our codes and timetables, and ceaseless schedules, and much-harassed inspectors, our boys will soon be too well informed to perpetrate such remarkable errors as we have noticed. This would be a sorry consummation to the noble project of a

free and universal education. As things go, this world is a serious place enough, and we can have no desire to see another source of innocent gaiety eclipsed. Fortunately, however, there is no real danger; in fact, we are inclined to think that the present system is nearly the most effectual that could be devised for securing a continuity of our glorious traditions in this respect. Year by year more subjects are introduced into the crowded syllabus; year by year the unhappy teacher has to essay a wider flight. "A little of everything" is the motto of our friends in authority, and a superficial smattering of many sciences is the best way possible to procure a sufficiency of amusement. As years go on, then, we predict that the supply of laughable mistakes will increase rather than diminish. If the present *régime* continues, it may soon be impossible for any inspector who wishes to preserve his reputation for seriousness and gravity to undertake the examination of a Board School. For it is confusion that breeds blunders of this sort, far more than mere stupidity, and confusion is best served by a too indiscriminate variety in teaching. We may congratulate the Education Department upon having entered so warmly into the true spirit of the business. In formulating measures for increasing the flow of harmless mirth they have deserved well of all—and in particular of those who read the magazines. We can only hope that the pupils will not be backward in performing their part, but on that point we have little misgiving. The British boy is soundly conservative and faithful to his traditions; the circumstances are now exceptionally favourable, and we can look forward with confidence to a rich harvest.

What we have said should not, perhaps, be taken too seriously. It is by no means our wish that the youth

of our schools should set themselves, in consequence of a few words, to producing a crop of such answers as we have quoted. Such a course would be possibly amusing, but would also carry with it a certain amount of danger; and we cannot advise any boy in good faith to attempt making havoc after this fashion of his next examination paper. We have urged our theory rather in protest, perhaps half in earnest, against the usual spirit in which the outside public regard such solecisms; and we have been led, incidentally, into an animadversion against the policy to which so many of these solecisms are due. A wise man will not laugh lightly at another's mistakes, knowing full well that he himself is not secure from error; or, if his sense of humour be too strong, and the ludicrous prevail, he will, at any rate, laugh gently, not scornfully; so that, should at any time the tables be turned upon him, he may have some ground upon which to claim forbearance from others.—*Evening Standard*.

SCIENCE.

J. B. TURNER, B.A., EDITOR.
COLL. INSTITUTE, HAMILTON.

AN EXPERIMENT IN EDUCATION.

QUITE recently a most interesting book with the above title was published by Harper Bros., New York. In it Mary R. Alling-Aber, the authoress, gives an account of an experiment conducted by her in a private school in Boston, and also discusses the ideas that inspired the experiment and the ideas inspired by it.

Part I. of the book is in two chapters. The first contains an outline of the work undertaken during the course of the experiment and the manner in which the work was conducted; the second deals with an experiment on similar lines at Engle-

wood, now a part of the City of Chicago. It is impossible in a short notice, such as the present, to give even an outline of the work and the manner in which it was carried on, but the results can only be described as marvellous.

There are numbers in our province who are actively engaged in trying to secure the extension of Nature Studies in our primary schools; to these the results achieved during the progress of this experiment will be an incentive to continue the work they have undertaken.

Interesting as this part of the book is, it is yet surpassed in interest by Parts II. and III., the first of which deals with the "ideas underlying the experiment," the second treats of "some details about the teaching of special subjects." The ideas underlying the experiment are well expressed in the following sentences taken from the title-page of Part II.: "The one clear thing there was that children must be at once introduced to real knowledge, be given something worth their efforts, and treated as rational, natural human beings, who ought not, even if they could, be made to greatly care for the symbols and shows of learning in the absence of the real substance, nor led to imagine that they are being mentally and morally nourished—that is, educated—when fed on chaff mainly."

The special subjects dealt with in Part III. are Science, History, Literature, Language and Mathematics, and each one is treated from the standpoint indicated in the preceding part.

The book, as a whole, is one of surpassing interest, and whether we agree with the principles laid down in it or not, we are, at least, by a perusal of it, made to look over our pedagogical stock-in-trade, and for this reason, if for no other, every teacher will find it a valuable addition to his library.

BOTANY.

FORM I.

A.

Examine, with the aid of the textbook, the plant submitted, and show the steps by which you determine its (a) order, (b) genus, (c) species.

B.

1. Give (a) the order, (b) the genus, (c) the species of the plant submitted.

2. Describe (a) its stem, (b) its leaves.

3. Describe the different parts of the flower, illustrating your answer by drawings.

4. What are the general characters of (a) Leguminosæ, (b) Rosaceæ? Mention the special points in which the flowers of these two families differ from each other.

5. Describe (a) a strawberry, (b) an apple, (c) a rose-hip, mentioning especially the points in which they differ.

6. State the points of difference between (a) a root and a stem, (b) a rhizome and a tuber.

FORM III.

A.

Examine, with the aid of your textbook, the plant submitted and show the steps by which you determine its (a) family, (b) genus, (c) species.

B.

1. Describe (a) the stem, (b) the leaves, (c) the flower of the plant submitted.

2. (a) Define the terms *hypogynous*, *perigynous*, *epigynous*.

(b) Illustrate your definitions by drawings.

3. How are Monocotyledons dis-

tinguished from Dicotyledons by (a) stems, (b) leaves, (c) flowers?

4. Describe the following forms of inflorescence :—(a) Corymb, (b) Umbel, (c) Raceme, (d) Spike, (e) Head, and show how these have been derived from a single form.

5. Describe how leaves are modified (a) for securing and utilising animal matter, (b) for the storage of reserve materials.

6. Describe the different forms of subterranean stems.

7. Describe a fern under the following heads :—

(a) Frond or leaf.

(b) Sporangia and Spores.

(c) Mode of fertilization.

ONTARIO NORMAL COLLEGE NOTES.

THE Christmas sessional examinations, which were held on the 16th, 17th and 18th ult., necessitated a general review by the students, of their non-professional work. On the whole the papers were satisfactory, although in a few cases, complaints were made of the indefinite character of the questions.

About fifty students wrote here on the final examinations. The paper on psychology was the cause of much dissatisfaction, as the educational side of the subject was given very little prominence.

A successful open meeting of the Literary Society was held on the evening of the 4th ult., in the Assembly Hall. The leading feature of the programme was an address by Dr.

McLellan on the "Ethical Content of Literature," showing how character in its triune aspect of intellect, feeling and will, is developed by the study of Literature. The chair was occupied by the Vice-Principal R. A. Thompson, B.A.

Each teacher-in-training has taught, at least, two lessons. This represents between 500 and 600 lessons all together taught to the students of the Collegiate during the fall term.

The holidays will be brightened by the perusal of the O.N.C. Christmas Magazine, a souvenir publication of the Literary Society. It contains besides instructive papers by members of the staff, several witty and interesting essays by individual students.

The seating capacity of the college was increased in the fall without provision being made for increased ventilation. Both lecturer and students find it hard to pay attention to the work in hand, owing to this defeat, which can only be remedied by enlarging the amphitheatre.

Whilst reviewing the work of the term, the opinion was expressed by more than one student, that a preliminary course on the training of memory and on the analytic syn'hetic method in dealing with the divisions of a subject, should be given to all pupils in the higher forms of the Collegiate and to those beginning university work. By the application of a few of the main principles of these, a vast amount of cramming would be dispensed with, and result in a well developed memory.

The January term begins on Tuesday the 11th.

CORRESPONDENCE.

POST-GRADUATE COURSES.

PRESIDENT LOUDON WRITES ABOUT
THOSE AT TORONTO UNIVERSITY.

To the Editor of the *Gazette* :

SIR,—My attention has been called to the following paragraph which appeared in your issue of the 17th inst. :—

"The abandonment of the post-graduate courses at Toronto University for lack of support is a serious reflection on the usefulness of that institution. That out of the hundreds of graduates the University turns out every year only two should think it worth while to continue their studies beyond the limited courses required for a degree seems to indicate a deplorable lack of the desire for knowledge. A diploma does not signify that a man knows everything, but that he has been taught how to learn. A university whose students do not want to learn anything more must be set down as a partial failure."

I may remark that I was very much surprised, not only by the erroneous nature of the statements contained in this paragraph, but also by the very unfriendly nature of the inferences based thereon. With your permission, I desire to refer briefly to the matter in your columns.

1. The regular courses of instruction on the part of our faculty are limited to the work of the undergraduates. Much of this work is, however, of such an advanced character that it corresponds to what is styled post-graduate work in many of the universities of this continent.

2. We have quite recently established the degree of Ph.D., for research work. An essential condition for the awarding of this degree is that the

candidate shall publish an approved thesis embodying the results of an original investigation. No regular courses of instruction are provided for candidates for this degree, as it is assumed that they will be competent through previous training to proceed with their work with only occasional advice and assistance from their professors. At least two years' attendance and study at a university (one of which must be at the University of Toronto), are also required. The standard for the degree is so high that the number of candidates will in all probability not be large.

3. For some years we have had students returning to us after graduation for the purposes of further study, even though we have not had heretofore the inducement of a doctor's degree to offer them. They still come to us, and their numbers are increasing annually. Last year we had fourteen such graduate students. This year we have already in all twenty-nine graduate students. Of these, four have registered for the degree of Ph.D., and are regularly proceeding with their work; fifteen are doing research work which will count for the degree of Ph.D. if they decide to register; whilst ten are taking undergraduate courses, thus supplementing the knowledge already required of them at their B.A. examination.

4. It is but fair also to our graduates and to the university to state that in addition to these twenty-nine graduate students, a large number of our graduates have obtained their Ph.D. at foreign universities, and many are pursuing their studies abroad, with this object at present. Last year to meet a charge similar to the one now being dealt with, I gave to the press a list of over eighty of our graduates who, within the previous three years,

had obtained fellowships, scholarships, or teaching positions in universities of the United States. Of this list many who held fellowships, etc., were proceeding to the doctor's degree, as indeed many others also were though not included in the list. In the present year about a dozen of our graduates are taking Ph.D. work in Chicago University alone, and of these seven hold fellowships. The facts of this and the preceding paragraph will afford a sufficient answer

to your inference that our graduates are characterized by a lack of the desire for further knowledge.

5. It is almost unnecessary to add that your assumption as to the abandonment of post-graduate courses at this university is entirely without foundation in fact. No such step has been taken, nor is any such step contemplated.

J. LOUDON,

President, University of Toronto.
Dec., 1897.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

Although the *Atlantic Monthly* does not in appearance make any special effort for Christmas the December number nevertheless is a notable one. In fiction it would be hard to surpass at this time Hopkinson Smith's "Caleb West," or Kate Douglas Wiggin's "Penelope's Progress." Mr. Fuller also contributes a short story entitled "The Greatest of These." But it is to a contribution so penetrated with the atmosphere of its subject that one almost hesitates to call it fiction that one must turn to find the most remarkable feature of the number. The name of the paper is "From a Mattress Grave," and it is an account by Mr. Zangwill of the death bed of Heinrich Heine. It is announced that the Canadian, Mr. Gilbert Parker, will in the coming year contribute another serial to the *Atlantic*, to be called "The Battle of the Strong."

Anyone who wishes to re-capture that most elusive true spirit of Christmas would do well to give half an hour to reading Merry Christmas in the Tenements by Jacob A. Riis which is to be found in the December number of the *Century Magazine*. W. Lewis Fraser and John C. Van

Dyke contribute the usual valuable papers on art which have become a feature of the *Century*. Mrs. Burton Harrison's "Good Americans" is continued. This is a fair example of the modern fairy tale evidently believed in by the author. It is perhaps entertaining and possibly moral. Of quite a different character are a number of excellent short stories, everyone of which might be mentioned for good workmanship and happy conception. "Gallops" by David Gray, who also contributed to the November number, strikes a new and exciting note for outsiders in horses.

One of Blackwood's famous short stories is reproduced in the *Littell's Living Age* for December 18th.

The Christmas Isle is the name of the first article in the December number of *Table Talk*. The place is near Java, it would appear from the article in question, but reading it you will find that the world has had more than five years of Christmas Days and that requires a thoroughly retrospective survey before one can leave it. The author of the paper, Lucy Eliot Keeler, deserves much for hav-

ing discovered such an interesting fact in our history.

"Poor Chola" by Julia P. Dabney is the complete novel in the December number of *Lippencott's Magazine*. Among the advertisements will be found scattered the usual cheerful jokes that do much to keep men sane. There is a particularly excellent one of a Christmas bear.

MacMillan's Magazine have again been fortunate in securing an interesting serial. The story is called "A Philosopher's Romance" and is written by John Bewick who has succeeded in capturing a pretty and interesting atmosphere. Other contributions are "A Cry from the Far West" by Mrs. Molesworth, "Ramizan" by Hugh Clifford, and "A Cuban Filibuster" by Harold Bindloss.

Books lately received:—"Louisburg in 1745," edited by George M. Wrong. William Briggs, Toronto. "Mabel Gray and Other Poems," by Lyman C. Smith. William Briggs, Toronto. "The Story of a Sand-Pile," by G. Stanley Hall. Kellogg & Co., New York. "Tim and Mrs. Tim." The Toronto News Company, Toronto. "The Elements of Natural Philosophy," by E. J. Hous-

ton. Eldredge & Brothers, Philadelphia. "Lincoln Literary Collection," J. P. McKaskey. The American Book Co., New York.

From MacMillan & Co., through their Toronto agents, The Copp, Clark Co., Toronto: Parts 21 & 22 of "The History of Mankind," by F. Ratzel; "Physiography for Advanced Students," by A. T. Simmons; "Macaulay's Lays of Ancient Rome," edited by W. T. Webb; "Elementary Latin-English Dictionary," by G. H. Nall.

How much we owe to Arnold of Rugby! * Not only the British subjects in the Central Empire, but we also, British subjects in the Western Empire, and wherever the English language is spoken, have profited by the inspiring influence of the great schoolmaster of Rugby. We have read this life with much interest and profit. Our highest praise of it must be that we strongly advise every teacher to get a copy and read it for himself. *Vixere fortes, ante Agamemnone*: Let us remember.

* "Arnold of Rugby: his School Life and Contributions to Education." Edited by J. J. Findlay, M.A., late Scholar of Wadham College, Oxford, Principal of the College of Preceptors' Training College. With an Introduction by the Lord Bishop of Hereford. Cambridge: at the University Press.

THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

FEBRUARY, 1898.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN CANADA.

THERE was a time, shortly after the discovery of printing, when it was possible for a man like Casaubon to say that he knew the contents, more or less thoroughly, of every printed book. But the limits of human endurance were speedily passed, and to-day the enormous mass of literature taxes the ingenuity of the librarians to mould it into organized form. Each successive generation adds its own stratum, and the whole forms the storehouse from which the new generation draws its inspiration and facts. This is especially true of the scientific worker, dependent on the accumulation of minute facts, recorded by long series of patient observers. It is for this reason, therefore, that I bring before you, an institution devoted to science, a paper on the libraries of the Dominion.

The art of printing was introduced into the infant colonies at a very early period. In Halifax the *Gazette* was published in 1756, the first born of a numerous progeny, and was followed by the *Quebec Gazette* in 1764. In 1779 a number of the officers stationed at Quebec, and of the leading merchants, undertook the formation of a subscription library. The Governor, General Haldimand, took an active part in the work, and ordered on behalf of the subscribers £500 worth of books from London. The selection was entrusted to Richard

Cumberland, dramatist, and an interesting letter from the Governor, addressed to him, describing the literary wants of the town and the class of books to be sent, is now in the Public Archives, Ottawa. The books arrived in due course, and while no catalogue has survived, I think it would not be difficult to name a large proportion of them. The book world in which Dr. Johnson moved was yet a small one. A room for their reception was granted in the Bishop's Palace, and as late as 1806 we learn from Lambert's *Travels* that it was the only library in Canada. Removed several times, it slowly increased, until in 1822 it numbered 4,000 volumes. The list of subscribers having become very much reduced, it was leased to the Quebec Literary Association in 1843. In 1854 a portion of it was burnt with the Parliament Building, where it was then quartered, and, finally, in 1866, the entire library, consisting of 6,999 volumes, were sold, subject to conditions, to the Literary and Historical Society for a nominal sum of \$500.

PROVINCIAL LIBRARIES.

Naturally, on the organization of each of the Provinces, libraries were established in connection with the Legislature. In Upper Canada the small library in the Parliament Building was destroyed by the Americans,

and the one by which it was replaced by the fire of 1824, so that when the two libraries of Upper and Lower Canada were united in 1841 there appears to have been little left of the early fugitive literature of the Province. At the end of the past year the legislative libraries of the Dominion numbered nine, and contained 48,834 pamphlets and 309,395 volumes. By far the most important of these is the Library of the House at Ottawa. Originally established on the union of the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada in 1841, it was successively removed with the seat of Government from Kingston to Montreal, to Quebec, to Toronto, again to Quebec, and finally to Ottawa, a wandering life, which effectually prevented its attaining large proportions.

The unfortunate fires in Montreal and Quebec still further injured it, robbing it of much that was very valuable, and which could not be replaced. On the federation of the different Provinces in 1865, the library of the two Provinces only passed into the hands of the Federal Government. The beautiful building in which it is placed, behind the House of Parliament, presents a prominent feature in the magnificent pile of buildings which crown the heights overlooking the Ottawa River, and from the windows the spectator gazes across the rocky gorge and the Chaudiere Falls, towards the Laurentide Hills, forming one of the most picturesque scenes on the continent. In the eyes of the librarian, the library has only one serious defect, it is complete ; no arrangement has been made for extension.

On the confederation in 1867 of the Provinces which now form the Dominion, the union which existed between the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada was dissolved and, as we have seen, the library passed into the hands of the Federal Government.

Each of these Provinces, now known as Ontario and Quebec, established new libraries in Toronto and Quebec City.

UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES.

The 62 colleges and universities of the Dominion are provided with libraries containing 627,626 volumes and 24,894 pamphlets, an average of 10,123 volumes and 402 pamphlets. It is scarcely fair, however, to depend on an average of the whole number, as some half dozen universities possess, at least, half of the whole number.

The senior of these, Laval University, Quebec, is famous as being, after Harvard, the oldest on the continent, being founded by Bishop Laval in 1663. During the dark days which witnessed the long struggle, first with the Iroquois and afterwards with the English and Americans, little progress was made in the collection of books, and it was not until it was converted into a university in 1852 that it commenced to increase rapidly. On the suppression of the Jesuit order and seminary these books were transferred to it. It numbers considerably over 100,000 volumes, and is unrivalled for the extent and character of its French collection and its many scarce books in early French-Canadian literature and history. Their collection of the relations of the early Jesuit missionaries is only surpassed by the Lenox Library, New York. Our own Province of Ontario was for long the only one which attempted to grapple with the question of public libraries. Miss Carnochan, of Niagara, has given an interesting account in the Transactions of this Institute for 1895 of the formation and history of the first circulating library in Upper Canada, 1800-1820. Established by some enterprising citizens of the town of Niagara, for the supply of their own immediate wants and of those who could pay the small annual fee, it was

successful until the destruction of the town by the American troops in 1813 wasted its volumes and impoverished its subscribers, so that it shortly after quietly passed out of existence.

PUBLIC SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

In 1848 the late Dr. Ryerson drafted a school bill which contained provisions for school and township libraries, and succeeded in awakening a deep interest in the subject. Ever anxious to impress on his hearers the importance of libraries as the keystone to a free educational system, he urged it on every opportunity. Lord Elgin, at that time Governor-General, was so strongly impressed with the importance of the movement that he styled it the "crown and glory of the institutions of this Province." In 1854 Parliament passed the requisite act and granted him the necessary funds to carry out his views in the matter. The regulations of the department authorized each County Council to establish four classes of libraries:—

An ordinary Common School library in each schoolhouse for the use of the children and ratepayers.

A general public lending library available to all the ratepayers in the municipality.

A professional library of books on teaching, school organization, language, and kindred subjects, available for teachers only.

A library in any public institution under the control of the municipality, for the use of the inmates, or in any county jail, for the use of the prisoners.

To aid this work, a book depository was established in the education office to enable the smaller libraries to obtain readily good literature. The books were supplied at cost, and a grant of 100 per cent. on the amount remitted was added in books by the

department. During the 30 years of its existence 1,407,140 volumes were so supplied.

MECHANICS' INSTITUTES.

The proposal to establish the second class was, however, premature, and accordingly, finding that Mechanics' Institutes, supported by members' fees, were being developed throughout the towns and villages, the Education Department wisely aided the movement by giving a small grant proportionate to the amount contributed by the members for the purchase of books and reaching a maximum of \$200, afterwards increased, under altered conditions, to \$400 annually. In 1856 these had grown to number 26, in 1880, 74, and in 1896 to 292. The number of books possessed by these 292 libraries is 404,605, or an average of 1,385 each. With a total membership of 32,603, the issue of books for home reading was 700,958, or an average of 24.6 for each member, which is a very creditable return, considering that only 30 per cent. of the books are fiction.

In 1895 the Minister of Education brought in a bill, which came into force in May, changing the name "Mechanics' Institute" into "Public Library." By this act the directors of any Mechanics' Institute were empowered to transfer the property of the institute to the municipal corporation on condition that the library be free. This can be done without passing a by-law or requiring a vote from the people—a large number have already availed themselves of it.

In the cities and larger towns, however, the Mechanics' Institute, with its limited number of subscribers, was found unequal to the task assigned it, and accordingly in 1882 the free libraries' act was passed, based upon similar enactments in Britain and the United States.

FREE LIBRARIES.

The first free library established under the act was in 1883, and in the period between that date and 1896 54 have successfully come into operation. They contain 254,091 volumes, and circulated during 1895 1,216,407. Two of them, Toronto and Hamilton, take rank, both in number and character of their books, among the best libraries of the Dominion.

Unitedly the 346 public and free libraries of the Province of Ontario have on their shelves 658,696 volumes, and supplied in 1895 1,917,365 to their readers. Their revenue was \$183,688, of which \$42,741 was contributed by the Province, and they spent of this in books \$49,417.

The Province of Quebec has not yet introduced a free libraries' act, but the generosity of the late Mr. Fraser and of a number of gentlemen in Montreal has provided a fund for the establishment of a free library in that city, which was opened in October, 1885, under the title of the Fraser Institute. The Mercantile Library Association transferred to it 5,500 English books, and l'Institut Canadien 7,000 French.

In St. John, N.B., a free library was founded in June, 1883, to commemorate the landing of the Loyalists a century previous, and in Halifax a free library owes its origin to the generosity of the late Chief Justice Young, both of which have been very successful. A sister society, the Library and Historical Society of Manitoba, has been the means of introducing a public library, and with the assistance of the municipal authorities of Winnipeg have laid the foundation of an extensive and valuable library.

TABULATED STATISTICS.

In the lack of trustworthy information I have not attempted to give any particulars of the Law, Medical, Scientific, Collegiate Institute and

Young Men's Christian Association Libraries, further than they are summed up in the following condensed tables, showing the character and the Province in which they are placed, of the 480 libraries of a more or less public character in Canada.

Kind.	No.	Pamphlets.	Books.
Law	21	1,929	105,788
Legislative.....	9	48,834	309,395
Public.....	325	17,535	663,125
Collegiate, etc....	62	24,894	627,246
Others.....	29	15,224	96,918
Special.....	2	14,330	18,500
Y. M. C. A.....	32		23,660
Total	480	122,746	1,874,632

By Provinces the 480 libraries are distributed :—

Ontario.....	374	32,922	942,187
Quebec	39	31,841	531,356
Nova Scotia.....	26	17,756	97,521
New Brunswick..	15	2,689	54,787
P. E. Island.....	3	500	8,528
Manitoba.....	8	5,014	34,730
Brit. Columbia..	10	1,554	11,303
N.W. Territories	1	140	2,150
	476	93,416	1,682,572
Dominion.....	4	29,330	192,060
Total.	480	122,746	1,874,632

LIBRARIES IN ONTARIO.

We may conclude, therefore, from these figures that so far as the ordinary reader and University student is concerned Ontario, at least in the cities and towns, is not badly served. The percentage of books per head is not unworthy of a Province which has only been redeemed from the wilderness during the past 50 years. In two directions, however, do we find shortcomings, if not actual want. Outside of the larger cities, towns and villages lies a large proportion of the population of this Province, as well as in the others, which are entirely without access to books. There are whole townships and numbers of villages where the weekly newspaper is the only connecting link with modern science and literature.

If we wish to create an attachment by the farmer for his farm, to give an interest in life to his children in their surroundings instead of in the city, and, in other words, to lay the basis for a successful and pleasant country life, we must try to make his intellectual surroundings more attractive and profitable.

And this is not a new problem. Men who have had their country's good at heart have tried for years to meet the difficulty. The late Dr. Ryerson, as we have seen, attempted to make every schoolhouse in the country a centre of "light and sweetness" by the school library, but failed because the effort was premature, and because no effort was made to add to or exchange the books.

WORK IN NEW YORK STATE.

Since 1892 an effort has been made in New York State to meet it in a different manner. The State law of that year authorized the Regents of the State Library to lend for a limited time selections of books from the duplicate department of the State Library or from books specially given or bought for this purpose to public libraries under State supervision, or to communities meeting required conditions. Out of \$25,000 appropriated for free libraries, a portion was at once set apart to buy and prepare books to be loaned under these rules.

The rules then adopted provide that a selection of ten books may be lent for six months to the trustees of any Public Library in the State on payment of a fee of \$5 to cover the expense of cases, catalogues, stationery and transportation both ways. Where no such library exists the books will be lent on petition of any 25 resident taxpayers. Special collections of books may also be lent to the officers of a University extension centre, reading course or study club if properly registered. A later rule offers selec-

tions of 50 volumes for a fee of \$3. In 1893 the librarian at Albany began to send out a number of small libraries, of 100 volumes each, to such of the small towns and villages as were not provided with free libraries. One of these small libraries remained in the community but six months, and was then exchanged for another. Hence the name "travelling libraries," which has been applied to them.

TRAVELLING LIBRARIES.

The leading purpose seems to have been to incite communities to found permanent local libraries, but the scope of the work has been widened, and the system now provides smaller collections of books for rural communities. So successful has it proved that in 1895 the State of Michigan appropriated \$2,500 to buy books for a similar system, and in 1896 the State of Iowa set aside \$5,000 for a like purpose.

In the same year Mr. Hutchins reports to the State Library Commission that in two counties of Wisconsin similar work had been commenced by private individuals. He says that each small library was put up in a substantial case with double doors, a lock and key, and so carefully packed that it could be safely shipped by freight. It was provided with a complete but simple system of blank records, so that it could be placed upon a table or counter, unlocked and be ready for as effective and methodical work as any larger circulating library. In order to insure good care for the volumes, and a continuous local interest, the libraries were only sent to communities which organized a local library association of twenty members, who agreed to care for the books and to place them where they would circulate freely under the simple library rules prescribed. Each local association elected a Secretary, who acted as its executive officer, and each paid a

fee of \$1 for each library as a partial payment of the transportation charges.

Twenty-six libraries in one county were sent out in this way. They were visited about two months after by Mr. Hutchins, and he found them even more popular than he had expected. The most interesting accounts are given of the avidity with which the young especially seized the books. The movement is yet too young to allow of accurate statistics, yet they have proved that in Wisconsin, as in New York and Michigan, they supply an urgent need that has not been supplied by any other agency.

THEIR GOOD RESULTS.

They have carried into hundreds of homes new thoughts and information, higher aspirations and ideals, new forces that are making for a better individual, family and social life. Their books are warmly welcomed by families whose doors are closed to the reformer or missionary. Hundreds of small communities in Wisconsin have attempted to do such work for themselves, but have nearly always failed. They have raised money by entertainments or private subscriptions and have started libraries with high hopes. In most cases their selection of books has been unfortunate, and when the few entertaining books have been read by most of the patrons and no new volumes are added the popular interest dies, and the library is put in either an obscure place or its volumes are scattered.

By the new system only wholesome and entertaining books are bought, and they are constantly appealing to new readers until worn out by use and not merely shelf-worn. Every six months a library is new to some public, and its arrival is a matter of comment and draws new interest to the library station. The books are bought at the lowest prices and substantial

editions are selected. They can be occasionally examined and repaired, an important economy, for with books, as with clothing, a stitch in time saves nine. In the making of rules and regulations a wide body of experience can be drawn upon, and in the printing much economy exercised.

Finally, it practically takes the selection of the reading of great numbers of untrained readers, from the hands of blind chance, and puts it in the custody of trained experts who can draw for assistance upon the library experience of the world. Our great and costly system of public schools works unceasingly to teach children how to read and then leaves too many of them to go through their adult lives without using that power to the best advantage, because of lack of opportunity.

The travelling libraries offer an unexpectedly cheap, efficient and practical method of broadening our educational system, to include in its beneficent purposes everyone who goes out from the brief course of our Common Schools, and to enable them to pursue a life-long system of education.

APPLICABLE TO ONTARIO.

Such a system as has been described seems feasible in Ontario. No part of the Province is beyond reach by rail or steamer, and in no part need there be lack of readers. Our school-system, by providing school sections of moderate area, each with its school-house and teacher, seems to have placed the machinery ready to hand. In Wisconsin about one-third of the libraries are kept in the postoffice, one-half in farm houses and the remainder in small stores. But with the schoolmaster as librarian and the school-house as the distributing point, the most widely scattered farm population could be easily reached, while the results of the daily tasks

would be more satisfactory. By supplying also in this way the smaller existing public libraries who are barely able to add to their collections, boxes of 100 new books every six months, fresh life would be thrown into them and their readers brought into contact with the literature of the day.

The Minister of Education might justly consider the proposal to curtail the grants for libraries amounting to over \$42,700 and devote the saving to the establishment of travelling libraries.

NATIONAL NEEDS.

The second want is found at the other end of the scale. Our best libraries have not reached the stage of meeting the wants of our best scholars, and with the limited means at their disposal the time seems far distant when they will be able to do so. Rivalry is out of the question with such great libraries as those of Harvard, the Astor, Lenox, Smithsonian and others in the United States, not to speak of Great Britain, France, and Germany, or even Russia, but if our students are to remain at home some provision must be made to meet their wants. As a nation we cannot afford to be entirely dependent upon others for our highest culture, so that it is incumbent on us to consider carefully our position, and if possible, by combination and economy of energy, endeavor to supply our want.

TORONTO LIBRARIES.

We have in the City of Toronto some 15, more or less, public libraries, all of which, except four, are devoted to special subjects. These four are the Legislative Library, the University of Toronto, the Public Reference Library, and the Canadian Institute's. The first three mentioned are somewhat on the same lines, special departments being added to each to meet special requirements. In the past efforts have been made by

the librarians to prevent the duplication of expensive books and sets, but, necessarily, a large proportion of the books are alike, and much waste of money, time and energy, has ensued. The Legislative library, established to supply the demands of our legislators, has been forced to add to its shelves quantities of general literature. It has now outgrown the chamber provided for it, and it will be necessary for the Government at an early date to provide further accommodation. The City Public Reference Library has in like manner grown to about 45,000 volumes, which are housed in abuilding unsuitable for the purpose, exposed to danger from fire, and in need of additional space for expansion. The Canadian Institute, with its valuable collection of transactions, is in much the same condition, with the additional disadvantage that the student finds here only a portion of his work, though an important one, and a lack of proper catalogues and literary assistance.

We have here three libraries which partially overlap, and which fail to make full use of their opportunities by reason of special circumstances, and yet, which, if worked in harmony, would do much to remove the present reproach.

SUGGESTED REFORMS.

It has seemed to me, after careful consideration, that the best interests of the Province and city would be served by adopting a proposal such as the following :—

The Province of Ontario and the City of Toronto to unite in the maintenance of a common Provincial Reference Library, the books in which would be free to every person in the Province.

The Province, in consideration of the value of the books in the Public Library, to erect suitable buildings in a suitable locality.

The Legislative library to be

confined to such books as are actually required for legislative purposes, and the balance of the books transferred to the joint library.

The Canadian Institute to hand over their collection to the joint library, receiving in consideration a suitable meeting room.

Regulations made by which students in all parts of the Province could share in the use of the books, due regard being had for their safety.

In this way a library could be in-

stituted, free to the citizens of Toronto, as their own is to-day, furnishing the highest literature to every student in the Province, properly housed, with little more expense than the three libraries are at present costing ; in which would be found room for extensive geological, mineralogical, botanical, and other departments, which are so much wanted, forming a national library worthy of the Province and of the city in which it is placed.
—*James Bain, Toronto.*

CHARACTER AND SCHOOL EDUCATION.

BY SUPT. C. B. GILBERT.

THE necessity of training youth to virtue is everywhere recognized. The importance of giving such training in the common schools is generally conceded. Most now admit tacitly, if not avowedly, that no other agency can be relied upon for the proper training of all citizens.

The church and the family, at their best man's two most sacred institutions, no longer sufficiently meet the needs of the youth. Comparatively few people come under the direct influence of the church. Some regard it with hostility, many with indifference. Whatever be the cause, it cannot be denied that there are large classes of people who receive no direct benefit from the labors of religious organizations.

The family, too, fails as the universal means for training the youth to virtue. How can it be otherwise? How can it be expected that families whose heads are not virtuous should train their children wisely? In too many instances home is the worst place in which children can be. More and more the public school is recognized as the only institution which can be utilized for the proper training of all children. Yet we must admit that

here too partial failure has thus far attended all efforts. But the public school is a institution under control, and one that reaches practically all citizens ; hence it may be made the desired agency, and will be, so soon as its office is universally recognized.

We are still bound by precedent ; the public school, as an institution for universal training of the youth, is still young. At first, and largely even at the present, it has been regarded as an institution for giving intelligence. The church and the home have been relied upon to supply the moral training ; but intelligence is no longer regarded as a guarantee of integrity. The intelligent man, unless his character is sound, is simply more able to work evil than the unintelligent man. To give the child knowledge without giving him character is enlarging his possibilities for evil, as well as for good.

In general, there are three classes of opinion regarding the means by which virtue is to be inculcated through public schools. One class claim that the ordinary school discipline and the ordinary school instruction necessarily inculcate virtue. It is pointed out that through school ex-

perience the children are made accustomed to law, to order, and are taught what are called the virtues of punctuality, and silence, and obedience. This may be readily admitted; but punctuality, silence, and obedience are not, necessarily, virtues at all. At best they are expedients whose use may spring from evil motives, as well as from good. They do not indicate character, nor does their possession assure good conduct in other directions. I do not think it can be denied that the ordinary school discipline, even if it is of a poor sort, is of great value; but, nevertheless, it is inadequate for the cultivation of character.

Another class go to the other extreme, and claim that definite moral instruction should constitute part of the daily school curriculum, that children should be given regular lessons in morals, as in geography and arithmetic, in order that they may be made intelligent upon ethical questions as they are upon other questions. This, undoubtedly, has value. Intelligence upon moral questions is an excellent thing, but it does not make character. We have been accustomed to rely too much upon definite technical instruction in morals. Preachment is not nearly so instrumental in training character as many think; indeed, I believe that the ordinary school discipline and curriculum are worth more in training character than specific moral instruction.

While such instruction, wisely given, has great value, it is hazardous to require the average teacher to give frequent lessons of an ethical sort, and at any rate, such instruction is only of partial value. At its best, it can only affect the externals of conduct—what people call morals.

A very wide distinction should be made between morals and character. Morals are superficial; character is

fundamental. Many bad people have excellent morals. The genesis and evolution of morals are interesting. As everybody knows, morals—mores—are simply manners, conduct—are necessarily superficial, and change from time to time, and from place to place.

Good people in different ages and in different localities have had totally different standards of morals. The excellence of morals, as commonly viewed, depends upon their conformity to accepted standards. These standards are, in part, the product of the experience of the ages by which men have learned what course of conduct most tends to peace and general comfort. But, in part, morals depend upon existing conventionalities, ephemeral, often absurd. Our fathers did many things which we should regard as immoral. We do many things which they would have regarded as immoral, without in either case violating the prevailing standard. We never regard the standard of morals as fixed, if we are thoughtful, and the good are quite as apt to be violators of old standards and introducers of new, as the bad.

It is, doubtless, well that people conform to prevailing moral standards if they have no better ones, but it is not enough; character is needed. Character is fundamental, self-directing, self-acting, controlled from within. Morals are external, obeying extraneous laws, changeable, expedient, conventional. Morals include but a part of life; character, the whole. It is all inclusive, all extensive. The perfection of morals is complete conformity to external standards, avoidance of criticism and friction. The perfection of character is inability to do what is wrong, which in God or man is not a limitation, but an evidence of power. Wrong is a weakening and disintegrating force, like disease. The strong character moves

in its midst like the "Children in the Furnace." Such power comes not from formal instruction in morals, nor from conformity to any external standards, and yet such power is needed by the citizens of a free state. Such only is virtue.

Virtue consists in a completeness and perfection of being, whose aims, ambitions, purposes, and ideals all tend to one end. It includes knowledge, not knowledge of laws, proverbs, or formulas, but a comprehension of causes and relations. It embraces all of life, every thought, every act, so that resistance to evil is no more an effort than the oak's resistance of the zephyr. To such a character good deeds become nature, not supernatural, not artificial. The new birth of the Scripture is its type. All its streams of life flow in one direction. No act is unmoral. It may appear so, superficially, but every act derives a moral quality from the aim and spirit of the life.

Such character can be produced by no system of formal instruction; it must grow out of experience; but this experience must not be artificial.

With this point of view, I claim that character can be produced in school; not by the ordinary formal instruction and discipline, nor by technical moral instruction; but by introducing the child to a real, complete life, in which every activity tends to produce in him moral force, for every influence of environment, every occupation of mind, every activity of the body or soul enters into and becomes a part of the child's moral fibre. It cannot be otherwise. Our characters are the products of the whole of our living, and not of a part of it.

What traits must a good character possess? First, high ideals; second, clearness of judgment to determine between good and evil. This includes

essential truth, which means the same, I suppose, as Dr. Harris' "moral insight," a grasp of relations, power to discern the real from the fictitious, the superficial. It is different from veracity; it is more than honesty, though it involves them both. It is such a constitution of the whole nature that the real appeals to it, appears lucid before it, and is in harmony with it. A good character possesses, third, taste, or appreciation of the good; fourth, a will both strong and good.

How may these traits of a good character be developed in school? By making the school life as real to the child as the larger life is to the parent, by filling his time with those experiences which result in wisdom.

It is sometimes said that one generation stands upon the shoulders of the preceding. If this were in every sense true, civilization would advance much more rapidly than it does. In a moral sense, it is not true at all. Intellectually, here and there, a soul standing upon the shoulders of the past, may, for a moment, catch a glimpse of a wider horizon; but we cannot stand on shoulders long. No generation, no man enters into the experience of the past. We grow by our own experience, and not by those of our ancestors. It is often said that, when we have acquired, through experience, wisdom enough to live, we die.

What one generation does for the following is to raise the sure foundation, a little, an inch; to create a little better environment than it itself enjoyed, so that the new generation shall gain a little better experience; only a little; not the experience of the past, not its failures, but the institutions it created, the spiritual atmosphere it produced are what benefit the future. The child of to-day is born into a world that is a little better than that found by the child of fifty years

ago. The struggles and the mistakes through which this was produced are of the past, and he cannot enter into them. He must make his own.

Education proposes to create such an environment for the child that he shall gain daily, through experience, wisdom, so that he may live better than if he travelled through life unaided. In this, education is wise. Indeed, this is all it can do. School life is valuable to the child not chiefly for the definite instruction given, but for the character of the microcosm in which he is getting his experience. If it is rich, and broad, and real, if his time is devoted to search for essential truth, if he lives a life as genuine as the life of the adult, then he may really gain experience which will result in wisdom and character. This is more than is offered by the formal discipline of the school; more than is offered by its instruction, though it includes both.

If all life is a unit, and if every part of it partakes of the good or evil quality of the whole, school life, to be a preparation for it, must also be a unit, and every activity must be consciously directed toward wide, rich, and fruitful experiences such as may result in good character. I say, consciously,—this conscience is not entered into by the child. Most of those influences which form character are by him not directly felt. No school exercise is without its effect; the geography lesson, as much as the catechism, trains character; perhaps more.

Specifically, the school influences are the teacher, the curriculum, the method of instruction, and the mode of discipline. These are parts of the unit. I am to confine myself to the instruction. This necessarily includes, to a certain degree, the course of study. The method of discipline and the personality of the teacher are, perhaps, the greatest influences.

The value of a course of study in training the child consists in its fitness to produce breadth of view, clearness of judgment, nobility of ideals, love for the true and the beautiful, in general, to enrich and fructify the mind. It does not consist, to any considerable degree, in the definite information imparted. The subjects most valuable for all grades of school are those which have the richest content;—they are human history, literature, art, and nature. The child whose school life is devoted to the contemplation of these subjects inevitably receives moral elevation. If this contemplation comes as a part of a school life whose discipline is wise, with a teacher whose personality is inspiring, school will have done for each child the utmost it can do toward the creation of character. Specifically, ideals, judgment, and taste must come from the contemplation of high things. This is too clear to need elucidation. A little about the will:

We are all aware of the old controversy between the Herbartians and the Hegelians regarding the character of the will; a controversy which has been renewed in many educational gatherings of recent years. I have no desire to discuss the extreme views of Hegel or Herbart; the one, apparently representing the will as absolutely supreme, uninfluenced by motive, uncontrolled except by itself; the other, apparently believing that the will is entirely the product of forces other than itself, desires, environment, motives generally. The question is, Can the will be trained in strength and goodness? If it cannot, all attempts at character-development are futile. It is a fact which we all recognize when we do away with metaphysical terms and use common sense, that the will is influenced by motive; that, while it is supreme in one sense, in another it is controlled. We do what we want to do. What

appeals to us as most-desirable, thus controls our choice. We may have conflicting desires; we may want to do wrong; and we may choose, notwithstanding, to do right, but, if we do, it is because, on the whole, right appeals to us as more desirable than wrong. The strong will is the one that is able to put aside obscuring views, and see clearly the right, and training of the will must consist largely in creating this power.

All that I have been advocating for the creation of ideals, for the training of judgment and taste, is for the sake ultimately of influencing the action of the will. The riches of literature, history, art, and nature derive their chief value from their power to create motives which will guide the will in its action. This does not belittle the will; it is still supreme; but in order to choose, it must have motives. It cannot choose without.

Motives cannot be external; they must be internal. For this very reason the whole mind must be informed with thoughts which are noble and elevating. Its fibre must be so composed that the good will be the strongest motive. The will grows strong by experience; that is, each choice makes easier the next choice; hence, if during the period of school education the child's life can be so filled with ennobling influences that good shall be to him the strongest motive, and hence be habitually chosen, the will can safely be trusted.

There is, however, another class of subjects which constitutes, and must constitute a large portion of the curriculum of every elementary school. The formal studies—the three R's—not only commonly constitute a great portion of the curriculum, but absorb and dominate it so that it may be said that in the average common school the time is devoted to learning to read, write, and compute; that all other studies are introduced as accessories

and means to these, and that school education is supposed to be satisfactory, if the child has become proficient in these, and possibly a few other arts. If he can have incidentally acquired some breadth of view and some knowledge of the noble products of civilization, some taste for the good, that is all very well; but that is not the essential thing. Just here is where our common schools break down, and here may be found the reasons why they do not produce such characters as I have outlined. The order is wrong.

The great broadening and enriching subjects should occupy the primary place, and the arts, so called, should be secondary. The difference in order is fundamental and essential. No art exists for itself. Art for art's sake is despicable. Arts receive their value from what they express.

I do not need to enlarge upon this. It will appeal at once to all; but I desire to call attention to this point; placing the chief value upon the formal prevents the child from acquiring the correct notion of value. If the child, all through his school life, is taught to look upon the secondary as primary, if he struggles for perfection in form as such, without regard to the real end, how can we expect the adult to do any better?

Men devote their energies to acquiring that which is secondary. Money, power, social position, reputation are what they strive for most. When they sit down and think seriously about it, they admit that they are only secondary. Why do they struggle in this way? Why do we see men who have acquired a fortune, unable to use or enjoy it? It is because all their experiences during the time of education have been in the same line; the judgment of the superiority of the real over the superficial has not been wrought into their natures; on the contrary, by the daily

experiences of school life, the judgment has been inwoven into their mental fibre, that life consists in the abundance of things possessed; that form is greater than substance, matter than spirit. No teacher will admit this in words, but we compel our children to live it. When reading, writing, and computing, with the other arts, are impressed upon children as the great end of education, and their daily life is devoted to them, without regard to the ends to which they must be put, we are simply drilling the child for an unsuccessful and unworthy life.

Remember that character consists in the wholeness of the life. An intelligent knowledge of moral distinctions and moral values, unless they are wrought into the being, and have become a part of its fibre, will not save men from following the lower, and it can only be wrought into the being when it becomes a daily, continuous experience; hence, what we must seek to do in school is to lead children to experience that which is noble.

The good, the true, and the beautiful are a trinity; the contemplation of one necessarily helps the others. Nothing is too good for the child. The best that civilization has produced is his by right. Literature, art, the wonders of nature, and the lessons of history belong to him. Through contemplation of them, his mind should grow. They should constitute the content of his course of study, and the form should be based upon and directed to them.

He should feel, when he is learning to write, it is that he may express the best thoughts in him for the good of man; and that he may feel this, he should at that moment be expressing the best thought that is in him. When he learns to read, he should feel that he is seeking for treasures; and that he may feel this, he should at that moment be seeking for treasures, not

learning the forms of letters and words. When he is learning to compute, he should feel that it is to enable him to understand the form and extent of the beautiful world he lives in, not merely to add dollar to dollar. And that he may feel this, he should at that moment be acquiring some acquaintance with these higher things.

Thus his curriculum takes its proper place, and thus his experience becomes rich, and at the same time the inferior, the secondary, the form are better acquired, because the child realizes that they are for a high purpose. I cannot repeat too often that this is not done by telling him that it is so, but by leading him to see that each exercise leads to some high end.

Sometime or other, teachers will see that education is development, uniform, complete, and that the best results in every department are secured, if proper attention is paid to symmetry and harmony, that attempts to produce special effects, at the expense of symmetry, are violations of unity of nature, and tend to immorality.—*School Journal*.

“More supervision and less inspection” is in the air, and every province in the Dominion is beginning to understand what that means for our schools. The test has been applied to school work in the United States, and as a contemporary says:

“Notwithstanding the hard times the township boards of education in many sections of the State are adopting supervision, and whenever or wherever it is put to the test faithfully, it proves to be an excellent financial as well as an educational investment. The additional expense is small and the increased attendance always resulting from systematic organization makes the per capita cost of education less than under the old plan of no organization or supervision.”

LATIN PRONUNCIATION.

BY ROBERT M. HARPER, B.A., LL.M.

NOT so very many years ago, a teacher of the classics dismissed the subject of Latin pronunciation in this way. "Every modern nation," he told his students, "pronounces Latin as it pronounces its own tongue. Thus there are divers methods of pronunciation. This diversity would be inconvenient if Latin were a general medium of verbal intercourse. At one time it was so, and then there prevailed one recognized manner of pronunciation." Since the time, however, when the matter of Latin pronunciation could be thus summarily disposed of, and students were satisfied to use a system of pronunciation analogous to that used in pronouncing their mother-tongue, things have in some measure changed. Since then Latin scholars have evolved, after a great deal of laborious research and comparison, a system of pronunciation which, according to the best classicists, gives us, in a more or less perfect degree, the Latin sounds as they were produced by the ancient Romans in using their own language. This new old method of verbal expression, which is called the Roman or Latin method, has been very generally accepted and is being used in an increasing number of our higher institutions of learning. Its introduction into the various colleges has, by the reaction of the university on the school through the graduate-teacher, made its acceptance or rejection by the school compulsory on those who have the authority to make selection. As yet this selection lies with the teacher. The powers that be have made no pronouncement on the matter other than indirectly through the authorized text-books. Of these, the ones which advocate the Roman

method of pronunciation, like Collar and Daniell's, also provide for the English method. In other words, still another minor problem has been created for the teacher to solve. "What method of Latin pronunciation shall be used in the schools?"

In opening the discussion of this question, I think I may safely predict that it will be limited to an examination of the respective worths of the English and the Latin or Roman methods of pronunciation. The other systems we sometimes hear spoken of, like the Continental and the Italian, will hardly enter into competition with these two; and hence the question we have before us may be put anew and in this form: "Should the Roman or the English method of Latin pronunciation be used in our schools?"

The best solution of the problem will, I think, be found in the answer to this other question, "Why does Latin form a part of the ordinary school curriculum?" I use the term "school curriculum" advisedly, for we should, in approaching this matter, differentiate between the school and the university.

Is Latin taught in our schools because it is an excellent "discipline" study? because it is, as someone has said, a "perfect" language? because it makes smooth the rough places for the pupil struggling with the intricacies of English grammar? because it is the key to some of the richest treasures in the world's literature? because it gives an introduction to professional studies and is a valuable aid in mastering their technicalities? To each of these the answer must be, yes—with a limitation. These are all good reasons for the retention of

Latin as an important part of the well-conceived course of study; but they do not indicate the real, the all-important end to be attained by the study of Latin. It is because of the influence it exerted on the development of English as a language; it is because a knowledge of it conduces, or perhaps is essential, to a thorough and accurate knowledge of our mother-tongue, that we plead for its continuance on the curriculum, and should be, one and all, sorry to see any determined movement on the part of a modern language to oust it from its lawful place. "If," as the teacher of Latin already referred to has said, "you are familiar with the two elements of English (the Saxon and the Latin) you possess the means of knowing and writing English." This idea has been developed by Dr. Harris in an article published in one of his more recent reports, where he draws attention to the value of Latin as a school study as furnishing "the root words to that part of our vocabulary which is more especially the language of thought and reflection." "Hence," he says, "it happens that even a little study of Latin makes a great difference in the grasp of the mind as regards generalization and principles. Without Latin the trope and metaphor underlying the abstract terms necessary to express all elevated sentiment or thought in English, and more specifically all scientific results, is not perceived nor felt. Such trope or metaphor is the basis of abstract terms, and hence the latter have been called 'fossil poetry.' To gain command of the resources of a language one must revivify this poetic element, must acquire a feeling of the trope and metaphor which it contains."

Not only this, but Latin embodied as it is in the English language, is as much the medium of intercourse between learned and cultured men *now*, as it was when scholars and

courtiers used the language of ancient Rome to express their ideas and opinions. You have all heard the wail, "Oh, Latin is a dead language, and I don't see why my boy or girl should be asked to learn it." There is an element of truth—a very small element of truth—in the statement that Latin is a "dead" language. As a self-contained, self-sustaining means of thought-expression, it is now practically "dead;" but at the same time, and in an important sense, it is very much alive. It lives in our own language and makes its vigorous transmitted life apparent in every sentence we utter. A little inspection will reveal the fact that a very large proportion of the words used in everyday conversation are of Latin origin, and the proportion becomes greater as the conversation becomes more cultured. What I have just tried to make plain is very well set out in this quotation from an article published in the report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1892-93:

"I would have children at the age of ten or eleven years commence the study of that language which, in the fields of persuasion and philosophy, of literature and law, is so largely the progenitor of the English—the incomparable Latin. This is the international arsenal out of which men in all ages have taken the weapons of words, with which they have fought the battles of all genuine culture. Latin is the carboniferous age in its relation to modern thought. We heat our firesides now by the consumed and adapted sunlight of Paleozoic times, so the light of modern literature and law comes from the intellectual sunlight that warmed the souls of the great masters of Greece and Rome. Side by side in daily study the two languages should be pursued, the Latin constantly illuminating the English, and mak-

ing the study of our native tongue more and more a delight, therefore more and more fascinating; and as an inevitable sequence, more and more profitable.

"It cannot be controverted that Latin, as some one has recently written, is the most valuable and loyal handmaid in securing that accurate and discriminating use of the English language which is the sign and seal of the educated and cultured. I therefore deprecate the force and fervor of that movement, now gathering strength, which will permit some modern language to usurp the place which rightly belongs to Latin, and for which there is no adequate alternative."

I may have laid myself open to the charge of evading the real question at issue, in what I have so far said, but I think I can justify myself, for in the answer I have tried to give to the question, "Why has Latin a place in the school curriculum?" lies the solution of the other problem, namely, the selection of a method of Latin pronunciation.

If we teach Latin on account of its influence on the development of our own language and because it is of incalculable value to the child in getting a thorough working mastery of his mother-tongue, then it is not hard to see which method of pronunciation is best adapted to the object in view. The *Roman* method is no doubt interesting—to the scholar, to the antiquarian, to the enthusiastic searcher after historical truth; and we owe a debt of gratitude to the men whose diligent labors have thus restored to us the pronunciation of the ancients. But will this improved method of sounding vowels and consonants in a way strange to English ears be of any assistance to us in making Latin the "handmaid" of English?

Even if it be not true that, as has

been remarked, the approach to the true pronunciation of Latin furnished by the Roman method is "so far away that were Cicero—I beg his pardon—were Kikero to come to life again and hear some of us at this *near* pronunciation, he would either not be able to understand us or immediately die of an apoplexy of chargin or laughter;" that the introduction of the Roman method into our schools would and could have no other effect than to uselessly disturb the existing condition of things; that there is an evident lack of internal uniformity in the pronunciation which results from an adoption of this method; that there is something in the rumor that some of the advocates of the Roman pronunciation have now an inclination to recede from the stand taken so confidently by them a few years ago; even if these things be *not* true, there is a better argument than is to be found in any of them against the use of the Roman method of pronunciation in our schools, and it is this: Will it help us to make the most educational capital possible out of the analogies between the two languages—Latin and English? Will the person who hears the English word *Ciceronian* understand its significance as well if he has been taught that the Roman orator was called *Kikero*, as he would if, like most of us here, he knew of him as Cicero? Will he as readily grasp the meaning of the expression, "So-and-so is a very *Croesus*" if he has never heard of the Lydian king except as *Kroisoos*? Or take almost any word derived from the Latin. For instance, will the child who is acquainted with the Latin noun *vigil* or the one who has only heard of *wriggle* get the better conception of the English word *vigil*, or the more readily understand the poet when he says, "So they in heaven their odes and *vigils* tuned"?

My examples may not be the best

that might have been used to illustrate my meaning ; but I think they will suffice to show that in selecting our method of Latin pronunciation we should, if we understand aright why we teach Latin at all, choose that one which gives the greatest possible help to the student in tracing the shades of meaning of the words he uses, and throws the fewest possible obstacles in the way of his seeing, with as little effort as may be, the "trope and metaphor" just mentioned. As that is what the English method does for the student, we should do our best to foster its adoption—or, I should rather say, its perpetuation—in all our schools. It should be used in the school even though the Roman method be universally adopted by the college.

As I have already hinted, a distinction is to be made in discussing this matter, between the university and the school. The education of the individual, taking it from its earliest stage, is, in a sense, a process of selection or contraction, going from the *general*, as embodied in the all-embracing (sometimes too-much-embracing) common school curriculum, to the *special*, when the faculties are to a great extent turned in one direction, that is, towards the particular calling or profession. In this peculiar sense, we may regard matriculation as one of these contractions. Not

all of those who attend our schools purpose following an academic college course, just as not all of those who take such a course purpose preparing themselves for one and the same profession. So not all of our pupils are going to make a special study of Latin as a language unit ; but all of them, without exception, are going to feel the benefit, unconsciously it may be, of their Latin studies reflected in their increased and more intimate knowledge of their own language. This is my reason for saying that even though the university adopts the Roman pronunciation, the school should adhere to the English method.

But, you will say, this is a strange way to plead for uniformity, to set the school against the college, and I confess there seems some reason for the remark. You will bear in mind, however, that any uniformity we may have must not be obtained at the expense of the child's best interests ; and besides, that we are not so anxious for an international uniformity or even a national uniformity of Latin pronunciation, as a *school uniformity*. And if the benefit to be derived by the student from the use of the English method of pronunciation is greater than can be derived from the adoption of the other ; if his mastery of his own language is facilitated thereby ; then let the *school uniformity* be along the lines I have indicated.

AN EDUCATION BUDGET IN GERMANY.

THE attention which has recently been drawn to the organization of education in Germany, and notably Mr. Sadler's recent article among his "Special Reports," lead us to scrutinize, not only the educational methods, but also the administrative machinery employed in that country. Mr. Sadler's pages are concerned in the main

with one out of several classes of schools, and the inquiries which they contain seem to have been conducted with a view to approaching the thorny subject of the delimitation of Primary from Secondary Schools in England. But there are of course other points of view from which one may regard educational organization in Germany,

and amongst these is the financial aspect of the matter. To appreciate the thoroughness of German educationists in setting themselves to meet varied requirements with the minimum waste of force, and to realize the efforts which Germans are prepared to make in order to attain efficiency, we must observe how they go to work in a town large enough to give scope for the due development of many types of school. Now Cassel, with its 81,000 inhabitants, not only forms a good specimen as regards size, but is recognized in the Empire as a model educational centre. Was not the German Emperor once a pupil at one of its gymnasien? There is, a considerable variety of callings amongst its inhabitants; no kind of employment is so predominant as unduly to influence education, or necessarily to multiply schools of a particular type. The engineering works, for instance, which exist in the town, do not overshadow other industries as they might in some parts of Westphalia. Cassel is in the District Authority of Hesse, one of the thirteen education divisions of Prussia. The authority consists of a president, generally a trained official; and of men of standing, often ex-headmasters, of whom one in particular, as an expert, is entrusted with the general direction of affairs. Through this District Authority the Central Authority communicates with the schools. The District Authority appoints head and assistant-masters, supervises examinations, and even prescribes books to be used. A town has no direct control over the gymnasien within its area, though it naturally enjoys considerable influence over them, and is willing occasionally to contribute to their funds. Besides two gymnasien, with about 1,000 pupils, Cassel has a Realgymnasium (teaching Latin but not Greek), with over 400 pupils; an Oberrealschule (neither Greek nor

Latin), having over 600 pupils; a Realschule, with over 200 pupils; and a Preparatory School, with nearly 400 pupils. So much for the boys. The public girls' schools are two—a Higher School with 550 pupils, and a Middle School with over 600. Thus we find that Cassel has over 2,500 boys attending Secondary Schools—a proportion which almost takes one's breath away, for it is five or six times as great as that which prevails even in those towns in England where Secondary Education is considered to be not ill-organized. The proportion of girls attending public Secondary Schools is much lower, but still far above what we should consider a liberal proportion even amongst boys in our country—more than 14.4 per 1,000 of population. The Educational Budget includes, of course, the provision made for the Elementary Schools, which are ten in number, and cost more than 20,000*l.* a year for the education of their 8,000 pupils. We find that the gross amount spent upon Secondary Schools slightly exceeds the sum devoted to Primary Schools. This result is perhaps not surprising, for not only are the Secondary Pupils comparatively numerous, but also Secondary Education is, even in the Preparatory stages, considerably more costly. Each pupil at the Realgymnasium costs nearly 15*l.*, of which the town contributes two-thirds. The two Realschulen cost about 9*l.* 10*s.* and the Preparatory School 3*l.* 5*s.* a head. The girls' schools cost about 6*l.*, and the Elementary Schools about 2*l.* 10*s.* per head of pupils. But besides these heads of expenditure there are others, for administration and special objects, which raise the whole to nearly 55,000*l.* a year. Of the whole expense incurred the State defrays rather less than 6 per cent., the town nearly four-fifths, and the school fees in the higher schools about 22 per cent.

Consideration of these figures will show that the strides which Technical Education has made of late in Germany have their counterpart in the field of Secondary Education. Both are part and parcel of a national movement. The same spirit which has led in Darmstadt and elsewhere to a liberal expenditure upon Technical Institutions may be found in Cassel. In point of population Cassel might be compared with South Shields

or Gateshead—towns with poor-law valuations of nearly 300,000*l.* The relative wealth of the burghers of Cassel would be hard to calculate; but one thing stands out clearly, that for purposes of Secondary Education the German citizen is willing to pay what would be equivalent in England to a rate of nearer two shillings than one shilling in the pound.—*Education, London.*

THE OPPORTUNITY OF THE GIRLS' PRIVATE SCHOOL.

NO one wishes to bring back Puritan times. The "good old days" undoubtedly gain from distance much of their enchantment; but they had certain characteristics, they produced certain fine, hardy types of character, that make every true New Englander hold his head higher because of his ancestry. Are the characteristics of the present time—are the types of character it is producing—such that the twentieth century shall have like cause to be proud of its heritage from the nineteenth? A recent writer says: "The spirit of individual independence is the spirit to which the progress of civilization is due; but, if not controlled by reason, it becomes the parent of anarchy, destructive of free institutions and of social order. In America we have been living under conditions which have admitted no checks upon this spirit of independence; and the result is seen in every class, in the enfeebled sense of the virtue of obedience and the necessity of discipline, in the unrestraint of expression, and the readiness to question and to resent the exercise of authority." No thoughtful observer can deny this charge or the seriousness of it. To shut our eyes to such a tendency, not to seek its cause and its check, is

practically to say, "After us the deluge!"

The cause is found in the lack of discipline in the family. It may be the reaction from the sternness of the Puritan home; it may be the desire not to interfere with the development of the child's personality; it may be that weakness of nature which spares itself the present pain of discipline regardless of the future welfare of the child; it may be American laziness that lets a thing go rather than "make a fuss about it"—whatever it is, it is not "parental tenderness and love" that thus sows the seeds of lawlessness by the failure to insist upon obedience in the home. To fail to teach a child obedience is to throw him out to the rough handling of life to be taught lessons of self-control and self-poise that should have been learned in the loving atmosphere of the home. It is to make it hard for him to reverence anything in earth or heaven, for he has not learned to reverence his parents. The growth of a spirit of license is invariably followed by a decline in the sense of duty. Why is it that in all departments of work, from the kitchen to congress, it is so next to impossible to find faithful service? Is it not because our people have ceased to ask

themselves what they ought to do, and ask only what they wish to do?

If ever we needed a hardy, self-controlled, upright race of men and women, a race with clear moral vision and broad, warm sympathies, we need it now. Life is growing increasingly difficult and complex. Economic and social problems are pressing for solution, and they will not always be put off. New duties—perhaps new social conditions—must result from the changed relations between labor and capital. Who must wrestle with these problems? Who perform these duties? The people who hold the power—the people of wealth. It is this class from which the girls' private school largely draws its pupils. It is the sisters and wives and mothers of this class for whose education it is responsible. What shall be the attitude of the private school toward these destructive tendencies that characterize our age? It can do only one of two things; it can either work with them or it can work against them. Many of the girls who come to it are the living embodiment of these tendencies. They have never obeyed except when they felt like it; they have done nothing except what they wished. The private school can, if it chooses, continue the education the home has so successfully begun. Or it can try to turn the current. It can demand thorough work in everything undertaken, concentrated study, clear thinking, definite expression; realizing that a slipshod performance of school work means later a slipshod performance of life's work; that a giving up of a hard arithmetic example means, in the future, a giving up before a hard duty; that muddled thinking in lessons means muddled ideas of right and wrong in conduct; that inaccuracy of recitation in the classroom means untruthfulness in word and deed in life.

But the private school can do more than restrain. By insisting upon honest intellectual work and good reading, by opening the eyes and the heart to nature's beauty, it can arouse such a thirst for knowledge, such a love of the best in literature and art, such a serene delight in woods and fields and mountains and sea, that those other pleasures that do not please shall lose their charm, and a marvellous new world of pure and satisfactory joy be opened to the view. The school can also give a higher and better gift even than this. It can teach its girls the sacredness of duty, the joy of self-sacrifice, the happiness of unselfish friendship, the love of the Lord. And the teacher—what does the work demand of her? Absolute consecration—a consecration that shall continually inspire to new acquisitions of mind and character; that shall ennoble drudgery; that shall hesitate at nothing that can help her girls; that shall be brave enough to speak the unpleasant truth, to impose the disagreeable restriction, if the good of one soul committed to her demands it. Let the private school learn its lesson. Let it give the girl enough food to enable her to find her wings; and let it not grieve if she never knows to whose provident care she owes her strength. For love of her and for the deed's sake let it do the deed.

The north magnetic pole of our earth does not coincide with the geographical north pole. It is more than a thousand miles away from it, being in lat. $70^{\circ} 5' \text{ N.}$ and long. $96^{\circ} 46' \text{ W.}$ In 1831 Sir J. C. Ross found it to be at Boothia Felix, perhaps 250 or 300 miles within the Arctic circle. Boothia appears on the map of North America, and is, roughly speaking, directly north of Winnipeg about 1,350 or 1,400 miles. Canada has not sent out any expeditions to find the north pole: but the magnetic pole is ours.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

" Deliver not the tasks of might
 To weakness, neither hide the ray
 From those, not blind, who wait for
 day,
 Tho' sitting girt with doubtful light.

" That from Discussion's lips may fall
 With Life, that, working strongly
 binds—
 Set in all lights by many minds,
 So close the interests of all."

The great events of interest in the Canadian world at the present moment are more or less connected with the educational question; and the management or mismanagement of secular departments, the building of canals or the transfer of railways, even the agitation among the office-seekers, all sink with a blush behind the greater question of education. There is the attempt to fan into flame again the Manitoba agitation over its schools, by waving the advice of a foreign potentate in the eyes of some people; there is the question of the Ontario feeling on the matter of departmental supervision, its entrenchments behind the authority of one, and the needful checks it requires; while in Quebec nothing has been discussed in the newspapers for a month past with greater show of excitement than the proposed education bill which the upper chamber of the legislature has refused to ratify. There is not likely to be much feeling excited among the people of Quebec, we are told, on account of the measure being blocked, though there is likely to be a more careful examination of the clauses of the bill by those who are to be most affected by it, than there would have been had it been passed this year. The people should know for themselves what is being done in their name and ostensibly for their benefit, and this could only be done by giving the people a year's reading of the bill which was to give them a Minister of Education instead of a Superintendent of Public Instruction, and possibly deprive them of many other

things. The bill, it is said, was no dangerous bill, and yet it is always better for our legislators to take the people into their confidence beyond merely declaring that there is nothing of a revolution about any of their doings. The people of Montreal were surprised lately when the Legislature, unknown to them, began to prepare legislation in their behalf, and so the people of Quebec perhaps have to thank the Councillors of the upper chamber of the Quebec Parliament that they have escaped the preparation of legislation on education in their behalf, before having had an opportunity of discussing that legislation in the concrete, clause by clause.

One very illogical feature about the Bill which has just been set aside was that less than no provision was to be made through it for the better support of the schools, seeing the subsidy in behalf of elementary schools had been decreased instead of increased by the action of the government. A proposition was made in one of the clauses of the Bill to take away from the subsidy to the intermediate schools and give it to the elementary schools, a step rendered all the more ridiculous had it been taken, from the utter inadequacy of the amount thus to be stolen from the higher schools to meet the demands of the elementary schools, and the crippling that would have befallen the institutions, which have been the only successful element of the Quebec system, had they been deprived of such a sum. And there are many such

anomalies in the Bill, which we intend to refer to from time to time, so that our teachers may be in touch with the movements in behalf of their work or to the contrary, and so that the people, through them, may come to know what is right and what is wrong, what is proper and what is improper about the Bill, if it ever comes up again. The necessity for having an educationist on the floors of the Legislature becomes very apparent when such a measure as this is up for discussion, and in this respect Ontario is, possibly, to be congratulated. The Bill that has been defeated has deprived the people of Quebec, for another year at least, of the services of a Minister of Public Instruction; but who will say, after all the rhodomontade that we have read of through the newspapers forwarded to us, as coming from the would-be educationists in the Quebec Assembly, that all their wisdom would have been nipped in the bud had there been a Minister of Education present who was only a politician and knew little or nothing of the first principles of education, or what a system of public instruction should be, outside the retention of this or that party in power, through the exercise of the patronage which the clauses of the school law framed on purpose gave him.

As the time approaches for the Convention of the Dominion Association of Teachers, our teachers are coming to enquire what is being done to complete the arrangements for a successful gathering in Halifax during the summer vacation. There is no more pleasant place for the enjoyment of a summer's recess than the oldest of the cities on the eastern shore line of Canada, and if steps be taken in time by the executive of our National Association of Teachers, there is no reason why a large representation of our teachers should not

be brought together in July next to take counsel with their brethren of Nova Scotia, in regard to the great educational problems agitating the world at large, and Canada in particular. As an exponent of the educational movements in the whole of Canada, and of no particular section or province, the CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY is endeavoring to emulate the Dominion Association of Teachers in the inter-provincial character of its advocacies and the influence of its national sympathies. The appearance of success about the first convention of the Dominion Association of Teachers was not the best thing that could have happened to the society, since even the "king-makers of the occasion," as one of our correspondents once called them, are said to be dissatisfied to the present moment, because they were checked by somebody or other in their efforts to make a pocket burgh of the society in their own behalf, a kind of gilding shop for their own special benefit, in which the supply of gilding was to be perennial, like that which comes to them through the coerced votes of the Quebec Association. It is said that some of these "king-makers" have not yet done their duty towards the society,—that, like the money spent in the famous History Competition, the financial statement of the association has neither been received nor audited by the present officers, nor the books of the secretary handed over. This can hardly be the case, unless the President of the Association, Dr. A. H. Mackay, Superintendent of Education of Nova Scotia, and his associate officers have failed in their efforts to place the affairs of the association on a business basis. The Dominion Association of Teachers is a confessed necessity. Its organization is for the advancement of no individual man's ends, but for the advancement of education in Canada as a whole, for the

interchange of educational sympathies among all Canadian teachers, and for the promotion of a common pedagogy from the school-room in the remotest corner in Cape Breton to the school-room about to be opened, let us hope, in the Klondyke region. This is a noble work, and the Dominion Association of Teachers will only ennoble itself by engaging in it : and if there has been any ignobility about its earlier ways of doing things, let bygones be bygones, and let us begin again under the invigorating auspices of the Nova Scotian brethren. THE EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY may be relied upon as a zealous co-worker with the Association in every branch of its operations.

There is an idea abroad, which some people are trying to develop into a kind of unwritten law, that certain citizens should keep aloof from the open exercises in which citizenship finds its health and strength, just as there are some parents who are disinclined to submit their children to the school exercises that tend to produce an all-round and healthful education. Clergymen, like government employees, should take no active part in public affairs, while for a teacher to interest himself in the political phases of his citizenship is an indiscretion which leads often to the worse results. Rev. Mr. Mayo, however, tries to put this matter right when he says :—

“The friends of Universal Education everywhere would be a more cheerful and effective army of the Lord, if they would take a more philosophical view of the movements of educational public opinion, and acquaint themselves better with the relation of education to its public and private environment. There is always a sufficient reason outside for every wave that makes high or low tide inside the school-room. The

teacher who is only a pedagogue, living in his little world of childhood and youth, with no mental environment save the world of books and his own personal and professional affairs, is as much at the mercy of the world outside as the lone sailor clinging to his life preserver in a mid-Atlantic storm. The real cause of so much undue exaltation and consequent reaction into discouragement is the fact that so many, even of the most cultivated teachers, practically leave out of account the whole going on of society outside their own little school-yard. They seem to forget that these children are the vital parts of families, churches, communities, states and a nationality, all unique and all essential to the existence of such an arrangement as the American system of Universal Education. Indeed it often seems as if many of the most accomplished of these people were dealing with their pupils as if childhood and youth were the ultimatum ; their graduates, bound express for ‘Kingdom Come,’ or some ideal realm of humanity existing only in the imagination of the educational theorist. We have already learned that the president of a successful university must be not only a scholar, but a man of the world, a statesman, and, in the best sense, an astute politician. A state, city or county superintendent of schools must be all this, or himself be an inferior member of an educational machine worked by men more capable than himself.”

The special correspondent of the *Montreal Witness* some time ago drew attention to educational affairs in Ontario, and our teachers must know for themselves whether he states the case rightly or not. “The educational controversy which,” as he says, “has raged with more or less vehemence during and since the late session of the Ontario Legislature, has had

the effect of directing public attention to what the Minister of Education, in a recent circular, condemns as an evil. The circular is intended to call the attention of teachers and school boards to the fact that the departmental examinations have sometimes been put to uses for which they were not intended when they were instituted, and which have had a somewhat injurious effect on the work of both public and high schools. It embodies three statements, each of which is of the greatest importance in connection with the current polemics: (1) That the departmental examinations are specially designed for candidates for teachers' certificates, or for some other professional standing; (2) that they are not intended to be used by high schoolmasters as a test of fitness for promotion from form to form of the course of study; and (3) that they should not be regarded as the chief test of a teacher's efficiency. These warnings exactly meet the difficulty and specify the evil, but it would be too much to expect them to solve the one and remedy the other without persistent reiteration and some lapse of time. This community has been drifting too long and too steadily in one direction to be very promptly pulled up and set back on the right course, especially as the teachers themselves are largely to blame for what they complain of. They have been in the habit of competing with each other at these departmental examinations, and of parading their own successes until they have educated the public into the belief that if they do not pass a fair number of candidates they have failed as teachers. It is not difficult to understand how this abuse of examinations has become so widespread and so deep-rooted. Twenty-five years ago the system of examinations for teachers' certificates underwent a great change. Prior to 1871 they were conducted by county boards

except in the case of normal school students, and in those days the normal school gave an academic as well as a pedagogical training. Since 1871 the non-professional examinations for certificates have been conducted by the department, and the certificates have been good for the whole province. This change threw the work of academical training into the high schools, and soon afterward the normal schools became mere pedagogical institutions. Preparing candidates for certificates soon became the chief work of the smaller secondary schools, and the efficiency of each school and its staff was judged by the number and percentage of its successful candidates at what was then a uniform provincial examination. The most effective corrective of this tendency would perhaps be to throw the examination for third class certificates back on county boards, but it is not easy to do this now. In view of the difficulties in the way it is satisfactory to find at least that the department is itself fully aware of the mischievous effect of the competition that has been going on. Authoritative intimations, frequently reiterated and widely circulated, may in time mitigate the evil, and teachers themselves may choose to assist the work of reform by exercising a wise self-control. If these means prove ineffective some other remedy will no doubt be resorted to, for the evil has become quite intolerable."

A mind, by knowing itself, and its own proper powers of virtues, becomes free and independent. It sees its hindrances and obstructions, and finds they are wholly from itself, and from opinions wrongly conceived. The more it conquers in this respect (be it in the least particular), the more it is its own master, feels its own natural liberty, and congratulates with itself on its own advancement and prosperity.—*Shaftesbury.*

CURRENT EVENTS AND COMMENTS.

In connection with the training of teachers in England, an examination is held each year of those who wish to enter a training college, of which there are thirty-three. Those who pass the examination are termed queen's scholars. The education department allows each training college \$500 for each male queen's scholar trained for two years who obtains a diploma; \$350 for each female. Usually the student boards in the college; of this kind there are twenty-six. The education department holds two examinations each year in these colleges. A large proportion of the principals are clergymen; one is a Roman Catholic. The queen's scholars can select their own college. In some of the colleges the subject of religion occupies an important place; in one, attendance at chapel is required twice daily. Among the amusements, dancing is stated to be the most popular.

And this is how the "new fad" is to be further introduced into the New York Schools, if the words of *Primary Education* are to be taken as authoritative:

"It is now proposed to try this plan in a few public schools of New York city, but on a more elaborate scale. Nearly every city department in New York has been asked to assist in preparing the rules for the mimic city government. Now this is not a 'make believe' affair, but is conducted in good faith and all seriousness. Think of mimic officials 'sitting' on school lunches in their office as 'food inspectors'; on the condition of cleanliness of hands and faces as 'hygienic inspectors'; on the physical status of the children—no, beg pardon—*citizens*, as 'medical inspectors,' etc., etc. When is all this to

be done? In the twenty minutes that the teacher is required to be in the school-room before the beginning of school. The primaries are to be held one morning, the convention will hold session the next, and an election will be held on the next. Isn't this about as well as for the teacher to be so 'nerved up' by the necessary discipline of the children before school that she is already wearied before school opens? And isn't it about as well for boys to be managing themselves as to be rebelling against the teacher's control? But nothing is said about the woman vote in this ideal municipality? Will the 'new woman' be evolved from this new order of things or will it prove one more opportunity to teach the coming woman her 'proper sphere'?"

The "Cosmopolitan University" is another of the new things under the sun, and this is how Dr. Andrews of Brown University sums it up:

"The work of this institution is avowedly along the lines marked out by the Chautauqua movement, but extends them much further, by providing that men and women everywhere, without any payment whatever, and without any affront to their religious prejudices, may receive competent direction in their studies. Courses of reading in the various ranges of art, science, philosophy, and literature can be carefully prescribed and conscientiously supervised; examinations thereon can be conducted; the merits and defects of work pointed out; promotions instituted, and, ultimately, degrees offered."

There is a state of affairs in Aberdeen University at present which brings to mind a chapter of the early

history of Queen's University, Canada. As the *Journal of Education* says :

"Professor Johnston was responsible for some of the most extraordinary scenes Aberdeen University has ever witnessed. Exercising his right to lecture on Biblical Criticism, he attempted to deliver an introductory address in the Pathology class-room, Marischal College, but the attempt was made amid an uproar that, though it rose and fell, was always deafening. Students of various faculties crowded the room and drowned the Professor's voice. Ultimately, the lecturer left the room, and, after a brief interval of wild confusion, the greater and rowdier part of the students also left, singing as they went, 'Shall we gather at the river?' Presently, Professor Johnston reappeared and resumed his lecture. But the noise was also resumed, as students came back on hearing of the resumption of the proceedings; and, by-and-by, Professor Reid, Dean of the Medical Faculty, and Dr. Hamilton, Professor of Pathology, entered to stop the meeting; their efforts, however, being ineffectual till Professor Hamilton laid hands on Professor Johnstone's manuscript and carried it off. One recalls the famous occasion when Professor Wilson (Christopher North) was interrupted in his inaugural address by the appearance of the Professor of Anatomy, watch in hand, exclaiming: 'Sir, it's past one o'clock, and my students are at the door; you must conclude.' Since his stormy opening lecture, Professor Johnston has been lecturing at King's College, Old Aberdeen, at the same time as Dr. Gloag, the Lecturer on Biblical Criticism, but no students are attending the Professor's class; he has been speaking to ladies, retired clergymen, and reporters. But he means to hold his ground, and he is not slow to express publicly his inten-

tion to do so and his opinion of those who have helped to bring about the present situation."

The training of teachers came up for discussion at the last annual meeting of the National Education Association of the United States, and this is what Mr. Hinsdale had to give by way of statistics on the subject :

"There is no country in the world where the provision of properly-prepared teachers for the schools is so serious an undertaking as in the United States. Of the numerous causes that contribute to this end, two should be specified. One is the enormous scale upon which education, and particularly public education, is carried on. The cost of our public schools, taking the country together, has already passed 175,000,000 dols. a year, and it will probably reach 200,000,000 dols. by the close of the century. In 1894-95 there were 396,327 teachers employed in the public schools. France in 1891-92 had 146,674; England and Wales in 1894 had 109,776 teachers; Prussia in 1891 had 71,731 teachers. Moreover, the number of teachers required increases considerably every year. The second cause is the instability of the teaching body, owing to the growth of population, the greater relative increase of schools, deaths, and most of all, no doubt, the passing of teachers from the service into some other employment or into married life. Unfortunately we have no statistics showing the average period of service, or the number of new teachers called for to fill vacancies and occupy new places that are created year by year. It was said a few years ago that in Maine the average term was four years; that is, 25 per cent. of the teachers of the State came and went every year. A report was published in 1892 showing that all the professionally trained teachers

who were employed in the high schools of Washington four years before had resigned in the interval. A German expert, in a report made after examining our industrial system in 1893, quoted this sentence from some American authority: 'In the United States the profession of teaching seems to be a kind of waiting room, in which the young girl waits a congenial ulterior support, and the young man a more advantageous position. In fact, the teaching body is so fluctuating that the rank of a profession is often denied to teachers.' If we may assume that the average period of service throughout the country is six years, then about 60,000 new teachers will be required each year, at the present stage of progress, to recruit the army of public-school teachers. How impotent the schools that are engaged in preparing teachers professionally are to meet this demand a few facts will show. The public normal schools in the country in 1894-95 sent out only 5,492 graduates, the private normal schools only 3,074, making a total of 8,566. Further, 192 colleges and universities counted 6,402 students in pedagogical courses, and 433 public high schools taught 6,809 so-called normal students. These students considerably swelled the number of teachers that had received more or less professional training; but we are not told to what extent. It is obvious that the whole contingent of trained teachers every year is but a small fraction of the total number. In Massachusetts, which is better furnished with normal schools proportionally than any other State, only 3,267 teachers out of 10,965 a few years ago had graduated from such schools. In Prussia, on the other hand, the 3,200 recruits sent from the normal schools every year are quite sufficient to keep the ranks of the army of teachers, more than 70,000 strong, constantly full."

This may be true of the pupils attending some schools in Great Britain, but Dr. Gordon Stables, who writes it, will, on enquiry, hardly find it true in the case of all pupils on this side of the Atlantic:

"The average boy of sixteen has no more idea of the mechanism of his system than he has of the internal economy of the planet Saturn. For all he knows to the contrary he may be just as homogeneous as a jelly fish. He knows that if he cuts his finger it will bleed and be painful, but cannot tell you where the blood comes from, or what makes it painful. He is ignorant of the fact that the blood comes from the heart, that the great arteries carry it to every portion of the body, however remote, and become more and more numerous and smaller as they proceed, till they are as small as floss silk, and so close together that one cannot prick one's finger with a needle without destroying a score of them."

The Knights of Labor, at a convention in Montreal some time ago discussed the question of free education for Quebec, and during the discussion it was stated that items appeared in the press occasionally to the effect that people with large families were deprived of the benefits of education through being unable to pay the school fees. It was contended that any one making their wants known, their children would be educated free of charge. Such a contention did not receive much support, as the children receiving education in that manner would be looked down upon as paupers, and many poor honest fathers kept their children at home for that reason. It was finally decided to petition the Legislature to enact a law making education free and compulsory, and thereby do away with the obnoxious system as it at present

exists, but the petition has evidently not been forthcoming.

The criticism that it is the examination that fails and not the candidate is a common enough cry, the morning after the roll is called and the defeated lie around disconsolate. The thirty law students who lately had to report themselves at home as being among the plucked, had at least the sympathy of numbers as a support, and when the record is sent out from Montreal that only seven out of thirty-seven of the candidates passed the Bar Examination, and that four of the seven were English-speaking students, there is room for quite a number of inferences, though the most of them may be wide enough of the mark. The Board of Examiners have, it is true, wisely adopted a new line of procedure, and perhaps this has had something to do with the slaughtering that has taken place among the would-be lawyers. Formerly the Board divided itself up into sections, endowing each section with the power of recommending the selection of candidates whose papers had been read by them. Now all the papers of all the candidates have to be read by all the examiners, and, as a result, there is no possibility of a poorly prepared candidate passing.

Some of the defeated candidates in the above examination will no doubt appreciate the following paragraph taken from the *Journal of Education*, of Boston, though the local appreciation will hardly improve the remarkable logic of its statements. The name of the defeated candidate is given in the paragraph so wittingly penned by the editor of the paper from which it is taken, but for obvious reason there is no need to repeat it here. This is the paragraph entitled "The Failure of the Examination."

"There has been no educational

episode in many a day so every way unsatisfactory as the examination of Mr. A. W. E., assistant superintendent of — city. There is nothing satisfactory connected with it, either in detail or in result. The fact that he did not get the "required per cent." on the technical features of the examination is in no sense humiliating to Mr. E.; for, most fortunately, he is well educated and well-trained. All that a good normal school and a good New England college could do for a bright, diligent, aspiring student was done for him some years ago, and every month of his life since graduation has been spent in teaching in a normal school, or in supervision in town, city, or state. He has written and talked on many educational themes, and always acceptably. It would be difficult to find in the country a man of his age whose education, training, experience, and professionalizing has been more generally satisfactory. It was not Mr. E. who failed, but the examination. The authorities certainly attempted to have a fair, wise, serviceable examination. Presumably it was of the best, and yet a thoroughly equipped man failed; failed because of his successful preparation for the work for which he was examined. The humiliation is on the part of the examination. Something is wrong. What?"

And how many of our Ontario teachers, and our Quebec teachers, and the candidates of the late examination for the entrance to the practice of law in Montreal and elsewhere, will enjoy the above, and how many of them will further enjoy the editorial comments of the paragraphist. "The whole tendency of the day among professional people, among the best and most progressive educators," says the editor, with his eye on the galleries perhaps, "is to em-

phasize the professional examination, which works very well so long as it is applied to youth and maiden, fresh from the technicalities of the schools ; to young men and women who know little of that about which they are supposed to be examined, but which breaks down absolutely the moment it is applied to any one who is expert in that upon which he is examined. If that be the case, is it an examination to test power, or merely an exhibition of professional athletic exercises? There is no longer any question about the absurdity of a technical examination of a successful well-educated superintendent, but how about the other examinations? How about a wholesale examination of candidates for the principalship of grammar schools? Is that as absurd? Why not? If a man is well educated, if he has had ten or fifteen years of uniformly successful experience as a principal, can there be any question about his ability to administer a school? Certainly not, but can he pass as good an examination as a fresh, inexperienced youth right out of the professional hothouse? Certainly not. It is not that the busy superintendents and principals do not know as much, for they know infinitely more. Passing examinations is an art, almost a "trick," to which one must be trained, and the hot-house training keeps a youth at this "trick" every week or two for years, until he is as skilful with the question as is a baseball expert with the twirled sphere.

There is, or was (for the teachers of the province of Quebec are not very sure whether their association is at present on *terra firma*, now that the Montreal triumvirate have made it their own by a process of unsightly coercion)—there is, or there was appointed a committee on "Child-Study," with Mr. Brown, of Lachine,

as its convener. The organization of such a committee (belittled as was the work of all the committee appointed at the last Montreal Convention, in the life and death effort to secure votes and a seat on the Executive Committee, was a step in the right direction, and it is to be hoped that, with such an introduction as was given to it by Mr. Brown's paper on the subject, something practical will come out of it. We have just received a notice from the New York Society for Child-Study, informing us of the meeting that it held lately at Syracuse, and at which the following suggestive papers were read: (1) "The Relation of the Home and School in Child-Study," (2) "Child-Study for the Practical Teacher," (3) "Child-Study in the High School," (4) "The Dullard," (5) "Child-Study by a Women's Club," and (6) "Scientific Child-Study."

The proposal to organize a Society for Child-Study for the Dominion of Canada, embodying, as it might, the minor organizations already in operation in some of the provinces, may be fostered by the following announcement in connection with the society above referred to, as the circular sent to us says: "The American Society for Child-Study was organized during the 1897 summer meeting of the State Teachers' Association in New York city. While other States have developed an unprecedented enthusiasm in organizing teachers and parents into Child-Study co-operation, the Empire State has promoted this phase of current education inquiry largely through the efforts of the State Superintendent's office. Many private and academic clubs of mothers, teachers, and university students have been doing efficient work for many years in different sections of the State, as in New York, Buffalo and Syracuse. This Society was

organized as a Bureau, under the presidency of Dr. Griffith, Superintendent of Utica Schools, and the secretaryship of Professor O'Shea, of the Buffalo University, to unite these scattered, local agencies, to promote Child-Study by establishing and fostering round tables for parents and teachers, to distribute helpful literature, and to 'direct scientific studies relating to the rational treatment of childhood from maternity to birth.' The Society has been unable to effectively promote these aims through the resignations of the Secretary-Treasurer and his successor, Mr. Hyron T. Scudder, both of whom removed from the State soon after their elections. On December 1st, 1897, the Society issued Leaflet No. 1, containing (1) "Suggestions for Testing Sight and Hearing," and (2) "A Few Suggestions upon Fatigue." It is hoped to follow this in the near future with pamphlets on special topics. The Society will be glad to undertake

special studies upon any problems which may arise in the actual work in the school of life of the home, and invites anyone facing such problems to communicate them to the Secretary-Treasurer. The Society invites all persons interested in Child-Study, whether residing in the State of New York or elsewhere, to become members. All such persons are enrolled as members upon the payment of fifty cents (50c.) annual dues to the Secretary-Treasurer. This fee entitles each member to all the publications and other benefits of the Society during the year of membership. At the Syracuse meeting the vacancy in the office of Secretary-Treasurer was filled by the election of Professor Edward F. Buchner, of New York University. All remittances of membership fees, and all inquiries respecting the State Society for Child-Study should be sent to his address at New York University, Washington Square East, New York city.

THE HAPPIEST HEART.

Who drives the horses of the sun
Shall lord it but a day :
Better the lowly deed were done,
And kept the humble way.

The rust will find the sword of
fame,
The dust will hide the crown :

Ay, none shall nail so high his name
Time will not tear it down.

The happiest heart that ever beat
Was in some quiet breast
That found the common daylight
sweet
And left to heaven the rest.

SCHOOL WORK.

SCIENCE.

—
J. B. TURNER, B.A., EDITOR.
—

COMPARATIVE ZOOLOGY.

A BOOK with the above title written by Prof. Kingsley and published by Henry Holt & Co., of New

York, has just been published. It is of especial interest to the teachers of Zoology in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes of our province, in that the text deals with the types that have been selected for study in the work of the fourth form of these schools.

The principles which guided the author in the preparation of the work are well stated in the following sentences taken from the preface: "A knowledge of isolated facts, no matter how extensive, is of little value in education, excepting as the powers of observation are trained in ascertaining those facts. Nature studies are truly educational only when the student is trained to correlate and classify facts."

Guided by these excellent principles, the writer has produced a work which will be of great service to the student making use of it.

The directions for laboratory work are simple, and yet free from unimportant details which are so frequently found in many laboratory manuals, and which are, by reason of their trifling character, offensive to an intelligent student. In addition to the practical work, there is much valuable information contained in the text with regard to allied forms with which the laboratory specimens may be compared. On the whole this book seems to be one of the most satisfactory manuals for introducing this delightful subject that we have yet seen.

The same firm has recently issued a seventh edition of Bessey's *Essentials of Botany*. The fact that this excellent work has run through so many editions sufficiently attests its value.

METHODS IN SCIENCE.

PHYSICS AND BOTANY.

1. State clearly your plan of introducing the study of Botany in Form I., noting also the material selected for this purpose and the time of the school year in which you would begin the work.

2. Botany is placed among the inductive sciences. Select a generali-

zation in this science and show how you would lead pupils to reach it.

3. Conduct a class through the experimental work necessary to form the conclusion that matter is transmutable. Illustrate by question and expected answer how you would lead your pupils to form this conclusion.

4. In a physical laboratory fitted and equipped for individual experimentation, lead a class to arrive at the truth of the statement, "At a given depth in a liquid the pressure is equal in all directions."

Indicate the contents of the pupil's note-book at the conclusion of the lesson.

5. "Before a student is fitted for experimental investigation (in Physics) he must have a clearly defined idea of what it is that he is to do, and how he is to do it; what he is to expect, what errors are to be guarded against, and how he is to use the results obtained."

Discuss this method in its bearing upon the student's independence, growth of perception, and skill in manipulation.

FOR PASS CANDIDATES.

1. By what experiments would you enable your students to acquire a proper conception of the method of propagation of sound in air? State clearly how you would have these experiments carried out, and give the questions you would put to the pupils at the various stages of the work and the answers you would expect.

2. A colorless liquid, which the teacher alone knows to be carbon disulphide, is given to pupils in unlabelled bottles. Show how you would lead your pupils to the conclusions (a) that this substance contains carbon and sulphur, (b) that it is a chemical compound.

3. "Among the experimental

sciences Chemistry stands preeminent in its adaptability for mental discipline."

Have your pupils perform simple experiments with metallic sodium and water, and use these experiments to illustrate their "adaptability for mental discipline."

4. By a first lesson on the earth-worm illustrate your method of teaching Zoology, assuming that the following types have been previously studied:—grasshopper, crayfish, spider.

5. In a lesson on any plant of the orders Rosaceæ, Labiatae, or Cruciferae, indicate how you would subordinate the mere illustration and acquisition of the technical language of Botany to the true aim for which the science should be taught.

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES.

FEBRUARY.

THERE occurs this month one of those rare conjunctions of planets which are interesting to know about, but rather difficult to observe. Mars and Mercury, now only seen as two little specks, approach very closely to each other on the morning of February 11th. The distance apart is only one minute of arc. They are both moving northward and eastward, Mercury, of course, the more rapidly as he closes in upon the sun. The declination is far south, but with a clear morning sky the phenomenon may be seen in the ordinary amateur's telescope. Jupiter is now a beautiful object, about 40 seconds of arc in angular diameter, and rising at a convenient hour in the evening. The phenomena of the satellites are of particular interest on the night of February 12th and again on the 20th. At 10 hrs. 57 min. on the latter night

the shadow of the largest of the moons, Sat. iv, will enter upon the disc of the planet. More interesting still is the eclipse of Sat. ii. on February 28 at 10 hrs. 01 min. 42 sec., standard time at Toronto. This will be well worth observing and a 2-inch telescope will show it nicely.

Saturn is still a morning star and far south. But the disc has an angular diameter of about 16 seconds of arc, and with a magnifying power of say 60 we have a very beautiful telescopic object. We are now looking upon the northern surface of the rings. It may be noted here that unless we see the shadow of the ball on the ring we are not fairly equipped for observation of Saturn. This shadow takes some curious forms sometimes, not altogether easy of explanation. For instance, the shadow of a sphere upon a plane should be convex in outline. But Saturn's shadow has been distinctly seen with a concave outline. Whether this is due to the form of the ring itself, is an open question; if the surface were curved this appearance would result, as may be seen by experimenting, but there is an irregularity about this phenomenon which does not fit in with any theory of the form of the ring surface. Some time ago a beautiful drawing of Saturn was made at a 12-inch reflector at Simcoe, Ont., and the concave outline was specially marked.

Observers need hardly be reminded of the beauty of the stellar heavens at this season; we have the constellation of Orion claiming most of our attention and may continue speculations upon the great nebula in the sword-belt. Some very fine drawings of this object have been made with the pencil, and the field for this class of work is open for all amateurs. The most remarkable feature about the Orion nebula is its vast extent; there seems to be no distinct outline at all when viewed with great light-gathering

power ; it fills the whole region round about, and we are simply overawed when we begin to think of the linear extent. It is not merely a stellar system we are looking at, but a whole universe, and yet there is the most positive proof that it is a mass of glowing gas.

The only favorable occultation by the moon in February is on the 25th at about 8 o'clock p.m., when the moon passes over a sixth magnitude star in Aries.—*Thomas Lindsay, Toronto.*

ONTARIO NORMAL COLLEGE NOTES, HAMILTON.

THE college re-opened on the 11th ult., for the spring term. The number of students in attendance is about one hundred and ninety. During the vacation, Dr. McLellan had a reading-file set up in the gentlemen's retiring room, and on this has been placed the leading educational journals and reviews.

The election of officers for the Literary Society for the next half year resulted as follows:—Hon. Presidents, Dr. McLellan and R. A. Thompson, B.A.; Patron, Hon. J. M. Gibson; President, L. H. Graham, B.A.; 1st Vice-President, Miss V. K. Scott; 2nd Vice-President, F. C. Shaw, B.A.; Treasurer, W. H. T. McGill, B.A.; Recording Secretary, J. S. Martin, B.A.

At a meeting of the college branch of the Y.M.C.A., two delegates, Messrs. J. T. Luton, B.A., and G. E. Pentland, were appointed to attend the Brantford Convention. It was decided not to send a delegate to the International Convention of the Students' Volunteer Movement to be held in Cleveland this month.

Besides teaching in the Collegiate, the students will have to teach, as well

as observe, in the public school classes, a certain number of lessons. This has been arranged by the Board of Education, and accords with the views held by some of the principals of the schools here.

The Athletic Association have elected the following officers for the coming term: Hon. President, Hon. G. W. Ross; President, J. T. Crawford, B.A.; 1st Vice-President, R. O. Joliffe, B.A.; 2nd Vice-President, F. Eastman; Secretary-Treasurer, B. French, B.A.; Basket Ball Committee, Messrs. Anglin, Brown and Garvin; Gymnasium Committee, Messrs. Keys, Tinney and Thompson.

The secretary was instructed to obtain rates for members of the association from the different skating rinks.

During a lecture on "Reading," F. F. MacPherson, B.A., had just uttered the line "And Satan was now at hand," when there came a rap at the door. The coincidence caused quite an outburst of laughter.

Canada is a great country, with a thrilling history, with wide reaches, wonderful variety and great wealth. No man can measure her possibilities. The Canadian Pacific Railway authorities, along whose line I came with great comfort and speed from Toronto to St. John, bear a great responsibility for the material development of Canada, and every evidence of the generous expansion of their system by the use of the wealth made and voted from the Canadian people is another step, if wisely guided, in a wonderful future. In a similar way, and in a higher realm, in the moral, rather than the material, the Methodist Church bears a great responsibility in the Dominion of Canada, and in Newfoundland.—*A. C. Courtice.*

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

BOOKS.

One of the most useful books to the student of French is the "Dictionnaire complet illustré de la langue française," by Pierre Larousse. The book is divided into three parts. The first part, comprising 804 pages, forms the dictionary proper, and contains, as the author claims, "une nomenclature très complète de la langue."

This is a French dictionary for Frenchmen, with the definitions and all the rest given in their own language. This is an advantage to foreigners, as in looking up the definitions of words, they are obliged to read the French phrases, and thus become more familiar with correct French idioms. The explanations given are good, and in the case of important words full and explicit. In addition to this, the explanations are accompanied by illustrative sentences, so that the correct use of the word can be ascertained. Take for example the word "rompre." There are noted nine different significations of the word taken in a literal sense, and with a figurative meaning eleven or twelve more, with short French phrases illustrative of each separate definition. About the same number of definitions and sentences are found under "recevoir."

A prominent feature of the work is the pictorial illustrations it contains. Every teacher knows how much more easily an explanation is understood if the subject under discussion can be represented to the eye by a figure. There are in the Larousse Dictionary more than thirty full-page illustrations, besides hundreds of smaller ones. To show the value of these illustrations it is necessary to refer to one only, that of "La Maison," in which the various parts of a French dwelling-house from

"cave" to "comble" are indicated. The interior of one room is also shown and the parts named, "foyer" "plafond," etc. No one after seeing this illustration need be at any loss to know exactly what is meant by "rez-de-chaussée" and "premier étage."

Part II. contains between thirty and forty pages, and is a collection of expressions, mostly Latin, with literal translation into French, and a short explanation, also in French, of the origin and application of these expressions. This will be found a useful and convenient dictionary of reference, especially as the Frenchman's familiar Latin phrases are far from being those in current use among Englishmen.

There are two editions of the Larousse Dictionary, in both of which Part III. forms the most distinctive feature, being, as the title page announces, "un dictionnaire illustré historique, géographique, biographique et mythologique." It is really a small encyclopedia. In the Paris edition this latter part contains 624 pages, comprising a large number of very valuable historical and biographical sketches of persons and places celebrated in history, and also short articles on some of the most important works in French literature. Of course, within the compass of a work of this size, it is not to be expected that exhaustive descriptions can be given. Indeed, the chief value of these articles consists in their conciseness. Only the prominent facts are touched upon, and these are arranged in such a way that the busy teacher can, without waste of time, procure the necessary information. When we add that this part of the dictionary is illustrated by 750 portraits of famous historical personages, and is revised every year, all the articles being corrected up to date, it will be seen that

the Canadian teacher of French has within his reach a very valuable book of reference.

There is a Canadian edition of this work, in which the historical and biographical section has been prepared and published expressly for Canadians by Beauchemin & Fils, Montreal. In the latest edition (1896) this part has been revised and enlarged, and contains 304 pages, comprising nearly 11,000 articles, about 5,000 of which refer to Canada. It is illustrated by 260 portraits, about half of which are those of Canadians. The portraits are small, and some of them are indistinct, but for the most part they are well executed. In the biographical sketches the preference is given to Canadian celebrities; those who in earlier times laid the foundation of New France, as well as those who in more recent years have contributed so largely to the glory and reunion of this Canada of ours—Champlain, Sir John A. Macdonald, Sir Alex. Mackenzie, etc. All this is no doubt useful and interesting, and yet, as this information is more accessible to Canadians than is similar information regarding France, probably the Paris edition of the dictionary is the one best suited to the needs of the Canadian teacher.

Both editions are sold at such a low figure as to bring them within the reach of every one. The Canadian edition, in pasteboard covers, sells at 75 cents. The Paris edition is a little dearer, but may be procured for about \$1. Both of them can be obtained from Beauchemin & Fils, Libraires-Imprimeurs, 256 and 258 Rue Saint Paul, Montreal.—B. K.

The year 1897 has been marked by the appearance of two works of the greatest value to all who in any way study modern languages, and more particularly French. These books are the "Chrestomathie

française," by A. Rambeau and J. Passy, and the "Dictionnaire phonétique de la langue française," by H. Michaelis and P. Passy.

The "Chrestomathie" is by far the most important work in French phonetic literature that has yet appeared, with the possible exception of the "Dictionnaire phonétique." It contains nearly 250 pages, mostly made up of specimens of different sorts of French, in handsome phonetic type on one page with the key in ordinary characters on the opposite page. The introduction, which forms above thirty additional pages, contains a discussion, as valuable as it is original, of the best methods of teaching languages, and gives a masterly and succinct view of the nature of French sounds, with practical directions for overcoming common English faults in pronouncing them.

In this latter particular it is for us more suggestive than P. Passy's "Sons du français," which has proved to be a very successful work. There is not a page of the introduction to the "Chrestomathie" that is not full of assistance to any one who is seeking to form a correct French pronunciation, or to learn to use the language. The main body of the work is divided into three parts. The first begins with extracts in double transcription, to show the differences between slow and rapid delivery, and then gives a series of amusing anecdotes turning on peculiarities or faults of pronunciation; followed by a collection of conundrums depending on puns, and ends by familiar prose and poetry. The second part contains more dignified prose, among which we find the now widely celebrated address of Gaston Paris on the Song of Roland and French nationality, delivered during the siege of Paris in 1870. The third part contains some forty pieces of poetry and a scene

from the "Bourgeois Gentilhomme." As regards the transcription it is worth noting that for the first time the stressed syllables are plainly indicated in heavy black type. This alone renders a very great service to the foreigner; and when he comes to read the specimens of French poetry in connection with the theory of verse outlined in the introduction, he will find himself in possession of a key to one of the most arduous parts of his study of French language and literature. The book is not meant for beginners in French, to whom other works, such as the "Leçons de choses," by Passy and Tostrup, or the "Elementarbuch," by Beyer and Passy, are better suited. The "Chrestomathie" is published in Paris by H. Le Soudier; New York, Holt & Co. Price in paper a little more than one dollar. In cloth, about \$1.50.

The "Dictionnaire phonétique" is probably the first of its kind. In about 300 pages the authors have gone over the whole vocabulary of French words in the spoken language, omitting only comparatively rare terms. The result is not an ordinary French dictionary with the pronunciation following the word, but a dictionary in which the words occur first in phonetic type, and are then followed by the same word in its academic form. The slight inconvenience of using an alphabet of thirty-seven sounds in their proper order soon disappears in practice, for there are really only thirteen new signs and they are easily remembered. The type used in this book, as in all the others by the Passy Brothers, is that employed by the International Phonetic Association in the "Maître Phonétique." This alphabet bids fair, indeed, to become universal among phoneticians, and has already been applied to some 150 different lan-

guages or dialects. That some simplification of sound notation is urgently needed in learning French is surely apparent, if only from the fact that there is scarcely any other language, except our own, in which simple sounds are indicated by academic orthography in so many different ways. A certain authority has counted in French as many as thirty signs or combinations to indicate the open and closed "o," fifty-two for the nasal "an," and fifty-five for the open "e." What a boon, then, is this book, not only to the beginner in French, but even to the veteran student who feels uncertain of many anomalous words as soon as he is asked to pronounce them, although he may not be far wrong in a host of others! Few of us yet realize the fact that there is not one single sound which is the same in French and English, though an examination of the preface to the "Chrestomathie" would soon convince us of it.

But the Phonetic Dictionary is not satisfied with one pronunciation for each word; it often gives two where both are common in cultivated speech, and it also supplies us with a very interesting table of the principal divergences in pronunciation, taking M. Paul Passy's pronunciation as a basis, and this is followed by a second table of divergences of which no account has been taken because of their wide departure from the standard adopted, but which one often hears in the mouths of natives of different parts of France. The book does not pretend, however, to set up a standard pronunciation; phoneticians have long ceased to do that. But it undoubtedly does represent the pronunciation which, on the whole, prevails among cultivated people of Northern France, and which, we are informed, is chosen, "not as preferable in itself, but as

being at the same time the most accessible to us and the most important for most of those who study French." No student of French can fail to be pleasantly surprised by the liberal views expressed on this subject in the preface, which is by M. Gaston Paris, and in the introduction, by the authors.

It must, of course, be understood that this dictionary will teach pronunciation to no one who has not completely mastered the sounds represented by the phonetic characters; and for that one needs to refer at the outset to a Frenchman, or some one who is a safe guide. Once the sounds can be made accurately, the dictionary becomes an inexhaustible source of the most valuable direction, and should be constantly referred to. There is one improvement which should be made in the second edition; that is, the insertion of many more proper names of persons and places, which, though they do not strictly belong to the language of every day, certainly do present very frequent cases of difficulty, as they do in our own language. The authors have already given a number, and they should greatly enlarge the list. The "Dictionnaire phonétique" is printed in Hanover, but can be had from the Paris publisher of the "Chrestomathie," as no doubt from Holt & Co., New York. Price five francs in paper, and six francs bound. The paper edition is very unsatisfactory.—*J. A. Cameron, M.A., Univ. Coll.*

A book of special interest to teachers and students of modern languages is the "Etude Progressive de la Langue Française," by Profs. Stern and Meras, of Stern's school of languages. New York, Henry Holt & Co.

It may be recommended first as a book to be put in the hands of pupils

for oral French reading at sight. Progressive teachers of French and German recognize more and more the value of oral reading as a means of giving the pupil power to think in a foreign language, and thus grasp the meaning without the process of translation; and it is for the purpose of sight reading that the libraries of many of our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes contain a dozen or two copies of some easy French story or play. But teachers engaged in this work have felt the ordinary book of fables or foreign tales to be inadequate. While it may be simple enough for the pupil to read without translating, it is not graded; that is, does not lead from the easy to the more difficult. The chapters are too long for the lesson, the narrative is consequently interrupted at the wrong point, and both teacher and pupils have a sense of incompleteness in the lesson. Besides, the ordinary story or easy comedy presents only one style of French composition, whereas a book for sight reading should be so varied as to avoid monotony and should give an idea of the different phases of French literature. Stern's "Etude Progressive de la Langue Française" possesses not merely one or two of these requirements, but seems to have them all combined. It is written in dialogue form, being a series of talks between teacher and pupils. These conversations are well guarded, covering the rules of French grammar, and leading from such simple subjects as the hour of the day, the seasons and months of the year, talks on cities of the old and new world, to a brief outline of French literature. From the beginning there is a plentiful sprinkling of anecdotes, and thus the narrative style is combined with the conversational. Stories are told from the great masterpieces, as the "Chanson de Roland," the farce of "Maître Pathelin," "Le

Bourgeois Gentleman," and extracts given from them. The pupil is in this way introduced to the study of French literature. The book will also be found of great service to a teacher as a means of supplying him with interesting material for his classes in French conversation.

We are also indebted to Prof. Stern for two volumes in German, "Studien und Plaudereien." These books are made on the same plan as the French one, the second volume, being more advanced than the first. The German books have one addition, which makes them still better adapted to the needs of a school reader. The last part of each volume contains a collection of poems, some of the gems of German literature, also some of the best known "Volkslieder" with music. If such books as these were used, the reading class would lose much of its monotony, and the French and German conversation, instead of being forced and stilted, would become natural and fluent.—A. E. M.

The most distinctive and interesting contribution to this month's *Scribner's Magazine* is from the pen of Ernest Seton Thompson, a Canadian naturalist and artist, who, in his own line of field observation has won for himself an enviable place in the world of art and science. The sketch is called "Old Silverspot, the Story of a Crow," and the scene is cast on Castle Frank near Toronto, Canada. One recognizes with pleasure what good names these are to use in writing. Thomas Nelson Page contributes this year the serial to *Scribner's*, telling at last the story of the war from a southern point of view. There are as usual a couple of good short stories.

The third and last of the "Just-So Stories" appears in the present number of *St. Nicholas*. One has a certain dislike to be a perpetual Oliver Twist, but we hope Mr. Kipling will continue to tell Miss Kipling stories and to let the rest of us have the benefit of his insight and imagination. There have been lately a number of excellent tales of sport in the *St. Nicholas*, illustrating football, hockey, etc. This is a commendable departure. The jolly little rhymes continue to be one of the features of the magazine.

C. D. Gibson has drawn a charming cover for the February number of *The Ladies' Home Journal*. One is continually hearing that Mr. Gibson's model is his wife, and again, that Mr. Gibson's model is not his wife, but at least she is a most serviceable model. There is nothing more interesting or instructive in this magazine at present than "The Inner Experiences of a Cabinet Member's Wife." It must give Washington people the sensation of skating over thin ice, and it is all so sadly true, like a photograph.

In a recent number of *The Youth's Companion* there appeared an article written by the Hon. William Ewart Gladstone, notable for other reasons than for its authorship. It was a reminiscence of the friend of his youth, but better known to the world at large as the friend of Tennyson, Arthur Henry Hallam. Nothing can be more beautiful than the way in which the great man, looking back in the fulness of his age, repeats his early judgment that this was the greatest man he has ever known. Not all the fair, brave and great, live to evident fruition, there are those, even superior to the remainder, who pass away and leave a cloud of memory behind.

The standard of the *Youth's Companion* is evenly maintained and more than commonly high.

"Black and White Rights in Africa," by H. R. Fox Bourne, is one of the notable articles in *Littell's Living Age* for January 29th.

"Notes on Open Letters," in the *Sunday School Times* for January 22nd, contains a mention of the mysterious and vague but fascinating figure Melchizadek. The constant service which is rendered to the students of the Bible by this publication it would be hard to overestimate. The number of Sunday School teachers who regularly look to it for the greater part of their information is continually increasing.

"A Brief History of our Late War with Spain" is concluded in the February *Cosmopolitan*. This has been one of the odd and visionary experiments in futurity which is characteristic of the magazine. But its place has been taken by an excellent continued story of adventure, with admirable characterizations. Col. Geo. E. Waring, in the series "Great Business Operations," tells of the management of the waste of a city. One of the greatest opportunities of the present generation in city government, it is also the least regarded.

"Across the Sub-Arctics of Canada," by J. W. Tyrrell. Toronto, William Briggs. The imagination of the general public in Canada is becoming more and more affected by the vast unexplored region in our country that lies to the north. We are interested to hear what has been seen there, we want to learn what adventures, trials

and experiences may be met with there; and this being the case we are fortunate in possessing a Nansen of our own in the person of Mr. Tyrrell, who has been gifted with the spirit of an adventurer and with the talent of a recorder. The book is interesting from many points of view, not the least from that of a botanist, who will find an appendix giving systematically the plants collected on the expedition.

"American Literature," by Katharine Lee Bates. The Macmillan Co., New York. The first chapter of this interesting book is devoted to the Colonial period of American literature, the second to the Revolutionary, after which the author in four chapters speaks of the National era, when the individual spirit of the States became more manifest. The question of indebtedness is a weary one and may as well be dropped, for the nations of the world do not promise to become more various as they grow older, literature is but a reflection of life. In explaining the position of American (of the United States) literature the author wisely confines herself to few rather than to many names and treats of broad distinctions.

We have also received: "Books: A Guide to Good Reading," by John Millar (William Briggs, Toronto); "The Children's Fourth Reader," (Ginn and Company, Boston); and "Helbig's Komodie auf der Hochschule," edited by B. W. Wells (D.C. Heath, Boston).

"The Study of Children," by Francis Warner, M.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. The systematic and scientific study of children is becoming every day a more necessary

part of a teacher's life and training. The subject here receives a thoroughly competent treatment at the hands of an English scientist, and the book is one that should be read thoughtfully and with due reverence by those who are sufficiently advanced to profit by it. That number should of course include all teachers.

"Lessons with Plants," by L. H. Bailey. The Macmillan Co., New York. In this botanical text-book the attention of the pupil is secured by the fact that it is written for him. It is not so much an instrument of formal instruction as the companion that a book becomes commonly only in later life. There are, it is true, a few lessons outlined, but they are given for the purpose of suggestion. It is an admirable book to use for studying alone.

"The Merchant of Venice," edited by A. W. Verity; "Earle's Microcosmography," edited by A. S. West; "A Selection of Lamb's Tales from Shakespeare," edited by J. H. Flather; and MacAulay's "Essays on William

Pitt," at the University Press, Cambridge. These standard editions are too well known and too satisfactory to need any praise. They are presented in the usual manner of these University publishers and will be found perfectly adapted to the use of secondary schools.

"Minna Von Barnhelm," edited by H. J. Woldtenholm; "Eight Stories (in German) from Andersen," edited by Walter Rippman; "La Fortune de D'Artagan," edited by Arthur R. Ropes; "The Fairy Tales of Master Perrault," edited by Walter Rippman; and "Remi et Ses Amis," a selection from Malot's *Sans Famille*, edited by Margaret de G. Verrall. Teachers of French and German will be glad to avail themselves of these very excellent selections.

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THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

MARCH, 1898.

THE ECONOMY IN HIGH WAGES FOR TEACHERS.

JOHN DAVIDSON,

University of New Brunswick, Fredericton, N. B.

THERE is an old fallacy, to which great bodies of men are still subject, that the introduction of machinery supersedes human skill and reduces all differences to an equality of indifference ; and every *laudator temporis acti* laments for the passing of the days when workmen were men, not the mere slaves of a machine. With clearer historical knowledge and a closer acquaintance with the conditions of labor in more backward countries, economists, at least, have come to recognize that probably greater demands are made to-day on the intelligence of the average workman than were made in the days before machinery, and that the skill and the intelligence of the artisan are, at any rate, no less in the factory, with its power loom, than in the domestic workshop, with its cumbrous hand loom. But the old fallacy is not dead. Periodically it is reasserted, even in the industrial world. Two years since there was a great strike in the boot trade in England ; partly, at least, against the introduction of machinery ; and apologists for the strikers were not wanting to declare that the introduction of American machinery into the boot trade in England would reduce the demand for skilled labor. As if the operatives in the shoe factories

in New England were less intelligent than the operatives in Old England ! The truth, however, is prevailing in the industrial world that the more complicated the machinery the more is the skill required ; the more perfect the system, the better must the operator be. The introduction of machinery does not do away with the necessity of human skill. The form may change, but the necessity of human skill is the same or greater. And it is the same with a system as with machinery, the same in the intellectual world as in the industrial, the same in the school as in the factory. The more perfect the system we have devised, the more care must we exercise in selecting those who are to work it ; for no system can operate of itself. Systems, like machinery, increase and do not lessen the demands on the intelligence and skill of the operator.

We have, in theory at least, an excellently devised school system ; and we have much reason to pride ourselves on the system. The code contains all the modern subjects, and nothing is omitted that could possibly be included. It is a building fitly framed together ; and the wonder is that the results of such a system are no better than they are. We find that our education is more in seeming than in

substance ; that there are great gaps between the primary schools and the grammar schools, and between the grammar schools and the college ; and that these gaps are, at any rate, not closing as fast as could be desired. When we turn to inquire for the cause we find it in the fact that the minds of our educational authorities have been possessed by the old fallacy that machinery and the demand for skill and intelligence are in inverse proportions. They have imagined that a school system would operate of itself, and have labored to elaborate and to perfect the code they had devised. They have forgotten that every improvement in the code and in the system makes a heavier and a higher demand on the skill and intelligence of the teacher who has to make the system "march." In the industrial world the evil results arising from this mistaken point of view were readily apparent, and, partly by the influence of competition, and partly by the action of the State, have been corrected ; but, in the educational world, the results are not so apparent, nor, to the average man, do they appear so important. Therefore, in spite of the protests of some far-seeing writers on education (generally pronounced reactionaries), our authorities have gone on elaborating the code and perfecting the system without inquiring whether any steps were being taken proportionately to increase the skill and ability of the teacher, on whom the ultimate responsibility of the proper functioning of the system must rest. Yet this is the real educational problem which awaits solution. Educational theory, and the practice enlightened by educational theory, is making less and less of the system and the subject, and more and more of the teacher. In the hands of the skilled any system will produce results ; in the hands of the unskilled what is the elaboration of educational machinery but the elaboration of con-

fusion ? Only in the hands of the skilled does machinery produce its perfect work ; and, without skill on the part of the teacher, educational machinery is, at least, as good, or as bad, as useless. What are we doing to secure teachers skilled enough to operate our educational system ? I do not speak of the systematic training of our teachers in normal school, or on the often undirected but yet very hopeful efforts in our county institutes, which are so good that one can wish them better. These are only part of our system—part of our machinery. Skill is not the product of the machine, and it was only the pressure of enlightened self-interest which brought the employers to recognize that it was not profitable to work expensive machinery with half-skilled labor. Only indirectly has machinery been the cause of skill. In educational affairs the enlightenment of self-interest has not been present, and the light that has been in our educational masters has too often been darkness. There has been little or nothing to combat the old fallacy that machinery lessened the demand for skill, and the demand for skill has consequently diminished.

Modern wage theory is inclined to state not merely that wages will generally be paid according to skill and the work done ; but even to go so far as to suggest that work done and skill developed are in strict proportion to wages received. The hard master who would gather where he has not strewn does not garner much ; if he pays meanly, his men will work meanly ; and, if the general rate of wages be inadequate the general average of skill efficiency will be correspondingly low. We need not go to the length of treating the theory as a convertible proposition which may be read with equal accuracy from either end—skill or wages ; but we may yet recognize the truth that there is an economy in high wages, and that a policy of parsimony may

often be a policy of waste. It is certainly not true to say that it is a matter of indifference to an employer whether many inefficient laborers are engaged at low wages or a smaller number of efficient laborers at a more adequate wage—although many employers are short-sighted enough for their own interests not to see how this can be. It is absolutely untrue that, where only one laborer can be employed, one inefficient laborer at a low wage is as economical as a skilled laborer at a higher wage; for, in the first case, the work may not be done at all. Wages are, according to Adam Smith, for the encouragement of industry; and all experience goes to show that the well-paid laborer is not merely absolutely, but relatively as well, the more productive of the two. There is certainly a false economy in low wages and a decided economic importance to be attached to what the Scottish Reformers, when they drew up the Book of Discipline, on which not merely the school system of Scotland, but the school systems of the United States and Canada have been based, called "an honest stipend"; and the economy of high wages becomes the more apparent the more the reliance which must be placed on the worker. In the commonest manual labor, where the laborers work under direction, it may possibly be a matter of indifference whether cheap labor or dear is hired; but the greater the demands made on the mental and the moral nature of the worker, the more nearly is it true that low wages show a low standard of efficiency and that the inefficiency is due to the low wages. Wages are "for the encouragement of industry," and, where the encouragement is wanting, the industry will fail. The standard of efficiency in any trade or industry or profession falls where the wages which are for the encouragement of industry are falling, or do not advance as quickly as in similar professions. For

a time custom and habit, professional pride or personal devotion, may prevent the decline of the standard; but, in the long run, a poorly paid profession will have a low standard. There may be many other reasons for men entering the particular trade or profession, and yet it remains true that, when in any calling the rate of remuneration falls off relatively to other and similar callings, the standard of efficiency also fails. The newcomers who are attracted to the profession are not of the same quality, nor have they as high qualifications as their predecessors. So, in one way and another, the standard of the profession falls—following the rate of wages.

It is perhaps a matter of doubt whether average wages are rising or falling in the profession of teaching. Some insist, indignantly or with lamentations, that the standard for the remuneration of teachers has fallen considerably; and others, more hopeful, chronicle with triumph any slight improvement. In the lack of precise information it would be useless to attempt to decide the dispute; and, moreover, it is unnecessary; for on two essential points there is practical agreement. Wages of teachers have not risen so fast nor so far as wages in other employments; and, at the present day, for the common-school teacher there are not, as there used to be, any prizes in the profession. Wages and salaries may be higher and the general conditions of teaching may be better than they were fifty—even twenty—years ago; but if the improvement has not kept pace with the improvement in other callings, requiring similar skill and ability, the net attractiveness of the profession has diminished. The importance of the second point can hardly be overestimated. Wage theorists insist that, in estimating the net attractiveness of any trade or profession, we must take account of the chances that offer of

great and marked success. On the chance of obtaining one of the prizes of the profession, men will be long content to work for a lower remuneration than their services are worth. The status of the calling is determined by these prizes ; and, when there are a number of lucrative positions which may be obtained, although after waiting, the standard of the profession will be set high, and men of marked ability will enter it. There can be no doubt that the number of such positions open to the common-school teacher has, during the last twenty or thirty years, diminished. The average salary may be higher now than it was then ; but this avails nothing to attract to, and to keep the best talent in, the profession. Wages are "for the encouragement of industry" ; and there is little encouragement when a man may obtain almost at first all that he is ever likely to obtain. The absence of prizes means the absence of incentive ; and the absence of incentive to increased effort means that the efforts will not long be maintained. It is not merely that the number of prizes has decreased, but the prizes themselves are not relatively so attractive as they were. For no greater expenditure of time and labor in training a greater return can be gained in other professions ; and the other professions are attracting much of the trained ability that ought to have been directed to the teaching of the young. Teaching is rapidly falling to the level of those employments of which a man may make a stepping stone. Teaching offers the inducement of an immediate return ; and many become teachers from no other reason than to earn money to enable them to pursue their studies. It is well that opportunities should be afforded to those who have the ambition and the ability to go farther ; but it is desirable that such an opportunity should not be offered at the expense of the status of the teaching

profession. Indeed, in some ways, the ease with which a little money may be made in teaching is a snare. It attracts into the profession those who are rather shiftless, without ambition, and irresolute. These stay in the profession, while those whom it would be desirable to retain, having pocketed their salaries, move off to their "fresh woods and pastures new." Many of those who entered the profession merely to earn a little ready money have remained in it from necessity. Once involved in the work, it was not so easy to work out again ; and some of our best teachers are teachers who, with great diligence, have made a virtue of their necessity. Yet the large effect is that the profession of teaching is being degraded to the level of those employments which are regarded by those engaged in them as merely temporary. In such temporary and stepping-stone employments wages are low. This is generally put forward as the principal cause why women's wages—work for work—are lower than men's. It is almost impossible to bring most female operatives to regard their present employment as their permanent employment ; and consequently the employers, having no guarantee that the hands will remain with them, will pay low wages only, and the hands, having no regard for anything but the immediate present, will not take trouble to master the difficulties of the trade. No teacher whose sole idea is to accumulate enough money to enable him to pursue a post-graduate course can take much interest in his profession as a profession, or care to apply his mind to the solution of the practical and theoretical difficulties of subject and method of which every teacher can speak. The results of this way of regarding the profession of a teacher are far-reaching. The desire for immediate returns depresses wages and lowers the ideals of the teacher ; the

rapid circulation of teachers renders it possible to fill any vacancy from among the half-skilled and inexperienced ; those who have skill and experience are forced to accept the rates for which young teachers will engage ; and thus a low rate of wages is established. To depress the rate of wages means ultimately to lower the standard of efficiency, which we see is closely connected. So we enter on a vicious circle which requires courage to break. Poor wages make poor work, and poor work is only worth poor wages. Who is likely to break this circle ?

It is easy to see that the school trustees in country districts will not, and cannot, break the circle. They are too often unqualified either in knowledge or in interest to direct the school affairs over which they preside. There is a very wide-spread idea, in all democratic communities, that no man is worth much more than the average man ; and, in farming districts, where the majority of the residents see very little money from year's end to year's end, the cash salary paid to the teacher seems truly princely ; and the natural consequence is that there is a constant inclination to reduce the teacher's salary, when it can be done. School expenses are, indeed, heavy ; the districts are often poor and sometimes thinly settled ; and the burden of the school rate must be considerable. Accordingly, where there is a lack of appreciation of the value of education, a niggardly policy is likely to be pursued. Salaries will be kept low ; for the question of efficiency will never be raised. Trustees are often as much interested in keeping down the school tax as in promoting education. They imagine, that, since the system is all-sufficing, anyone is able to operate it and produce the desired result. The practical corollary is to get the work done as cheaply as possible. The inference is not to be wondered at. If we accept

the general reliance on system and constitution we need not wonder that those who have no sense of the high dignity of education and the supreme value of it to the State put up the honor of the district at a kind of Dutch auction—require candidates to state "lowest salary," and stand ready to accept the lowest bidder.

It seems difficult to persuade the outsider that there are degrees of efficiency in teaching, or, at any rate, degrees that can be affected by remuneration. To the popular mind there is little scope for improvement. What knowledge the teacher has he keeps, nor does he require to add to his store to perform his duties ; and, after the indispensable year's experience in the practice of teaching, there is little left for him to learn that is necessary for his work. There may be differences between teachers. One may be as efficient and successful as another is unsuccessful, but that is a matter of gift and not to be commanded. That the teacher's efficiency may be improved by considerate treatment and by the prospect of increased remuneration never occurs to many ; and by some, who would admit the economy of high wages in industrial affairs, is rejected as an unworthy idea. The teacher is a public servant, and ought to be willing to render his best services to the community independently of all thought of reward. That the teacher is so often faithful in the discharge of his underpaid duties speaks well for the moral character of the profession. But, nevertheless, it is true that the efficiency of the teacher is conditioned by the material conditions of his remuneration.

The conditions of efficiency are complex and varied and include, in all industry, mental and moral considerations as well as physical. The element of hope enters in, as Adam Smith saw, when he said that wages

are "for the encouragement of industry." The teacher for whom there are no prospects of bettering his condition quickly loses hope, and with hope all incentive to further effort. The compelling power of a high ideal may keep him to his work, but much of his energy is lost in the moral effort; and there is a lack of that spontaneity which is the soul of all good teaching. A sense of being unfairly treated tends to promote inefficiency. A man is no sooner convinced that he is not being paid what his labor is worth than he endeavors to secure that he does no more than he is paid for. The sense of injustice will pervade his whole being and hamper his every effort to do his duty faithfully. No man can possibly do the best that is in him to do while he is under the influence of this feeling. In other occupations this factor has been recognized. No bank will long continue to allow its servants to cherish this feeling without noticing a distinct falling off in its business, and no employer can have his men think hardly of him without being made to pay for it, sooner or later. That it has not been also recognized in the case of teachers is due to the absence of self-interest in the employer; but it is present, none the less, and present to an even greater degree. For the work of a teacher is never purely routine, and can never be fully tested except by the teacher's own conscience. Indeed, the more routine-like it becomes the less efficient is it; and the teacher who feels himself unjustly treated, and is yet driven by his conscience, begins to regard his work in a purely routine spirit. It is true that many cannot help themselves. They are committed to the profession and cannot change; and their sensibilities may be safely outraged without driving them away. But it is precisely the teacher in this position who realizes most keenly the injustice he cannot resent,

and is under the greatest temptation to accommodate his work to his remuneration.

It surely needs no proof that the efficiency of a teacher is a variable quantity and is not to be measured by years of experience, by learning, or by training. It depends almost entirely on the disposition of the individual and on his efforts to improve himself. The teacher who has ceased to be a student rapidly ceases to be a teacher. He may retain the name and continue the form of teaching, but the inspiration has gone out of his work; and the effect of it will not long be hidden from his pupils. These may not be able to explain the causes of things, but they are, none the less, aware of the difference. Nothing so quickly destroys in the teacher all desire for further study as the consciousness that nothing matters. A few may, from sheer love of knowledge, pursue their studies, but the great majority quickly cease from all effort as soon as they discover that effort brings no reward. Even where there is every desire to continue studying and learning, a small salary may eventually reduce the teacher to the dull level of those who make no effort. The salary remains small, but in the nature of things, his expenses increase. Little professional luxuries which, at first, can be afforded, must be sacrificed to the imperious demand for the daily bread of those dependent on him. The professional paper or magazine, the occasional visit to a summer school, the general or professional lecture which seemed necessities at one time must be sacrificed; and then the teacher begins to tread the primrose path of inefficiency. As a rule it may be said that the teacher who does not subscribe for some professional paper is self-branded inefficient. Yet, with the demands there are on his scant wages, the sacrifice is inevitable. Many and many a teacher has seen,

with sinking heart, the necessity of economizing somewhere ; and the only place where he can economize is, as he knows, at the sacrifice of his immediate efficiency and his ultimate prospects. Those who so freely denounce the teacher who has abandoned all effort toward improvement are not always aware of the sad tragedy in the lives of those who seem contented " fossils." With proper means, through an " honest stipend," such might have been saved to do good work for the community ; and the blame for their inefficiency is not theirs but the community's.

Others with more energy and greater opportunity strive to add to their wages by extra earnings ; and since their salary from teaching is at least certain, efficiency being of no account, they ultimately come to devote the greater part of their energy to the making of their extra earnings. Few have either the ability or the opportunity to obtain such employment along lines which will improve their efficiency as teachers. They must either take private teaching, the most wearisome of all employments to one whose day is occupied in similar work, or find some light business employment which will bring them in the necessary addition to the salary. Generally such extra earnings are obtained by a disproportionate expenditure of energy, willingly given, that the margin between misery and happiness, between poverty and comfort may be safely passed. And the result invariably is that the staple employment suffers. Less and less energy is expended, less and less thought is given, the school work is more and more reduced to routine ; and to the occasional prickings of conscience there is the ready answer that as much is being given as the pay deserves.

The result is that the standard of efficiency among teachers is low. We multiply subjects and extend codes

till we include all the sciences (and some that are not sciences) ; and yet we neglect the weightiest matter that makes for efficiency. We trouble ourselves much about the subjects and their proper co-ordination, and but little about the real conditions of the fitness of the teacher. For the fitness of the teacher is not a matter merely of preliminary training and of scientific methods. It is a matter of daily striving and of constant effort ; it is a matter of inspiration and fresh contact with the ideal ; and these things are denied to the teacher by the inadequacy of his remuneration. Without them our most perfectly elaborated systems and methods are useless, or worse than useless. The more complex the machinery the more skilled must the operator be. Yet by our niggardliness in the matter of salaries we are driving the skilled operator out of our schools and committing the highest social work to those who are not competent to succeed elsewhere, or too young as yet to try. We ought not to commit our educational machinery to the care of children. We need able men and women to do the work ; but mature ability cannot long be commanded at our price. All who have either energy or ability early leave the profession and seek a better career for their talents. Not half of our teachers have been engaged at the work for even the short period of three years. The teaching staff is continuously recruited from the ranks of the young and the inexperienced. Children of seventeen or eighteen are not fitted to teach ; but, while the wages of teaching remain as low as they are, it is the services of children only that we can command. Yet surely it is more economical to pay well and have the work done than to pay poorly and have it botched and mangled. We need not take the ethical ground that a laborer is worthy of his hire. On the lower grounds of

economics and business, higher wages for teachers are a social necessity. If we believe in education at all, we must believe in the necessity of having it well done but under present conditions, it cannot be well done. We need mature ability to operate our educational system—all the more because, whether we like it or not, it is a secular system—and that means that our teachers must build up the characters

of their pupils (what is education but character building ?) without the aid of the most efficient instrument in their work. And the children on whom we must rely while we pursue the old exploded policy of the economy of low wages—the children of seventeen or eighteen, themselves with unformed characters—cannot possibly do the real work of education.—*The Educational Review.*

LANGUAGE TEACHING. *

H. COURTHOPE BOWEN, M.A.

LET me begin by making clear what it is that I propose to deal with this evening. I do not propose to consider how Latin may be taught by means of English—as Dr. Abbott did in his address to the Teachers' Guild in 1888—nor do I intend to argue the question as to when Latin should be commenced. My wish is to try whether we cannot amongst us decide as to what points in the teaching of English should receive most attention, and how they should be dealt with, in order to render the beginning of another language—an inflected language such as Latin, for instance—somewhat less dark and difficult than it usually is. That linguistics strictly so called is not a subject likely to interest or to profit little children I think we shall all agree. "Boys find no sap or sweetness in it," as Charles Hoole said, because it is unsuited to their "waterish wits." But most of us, it seems to me, have by this time come to the con-

clusion that in dealing with all our subjects at school we should at least begin informally, remain informal for a while, and only gradually rise into strict formality—following in this the manner in which human knowledge has grown in every department. Before beginning strictly to study a new language we need a preparatory informal stage. It is the lack of this that makes the first entry into Latin so difficult and uninteresting. The boy has not yet acquired any *general notion* of language and its ways ; the whole thing seems strange, arbitrary, artificial—if, indeed, it be at all intelligible to him.

Now, language being an attempt by human beings to make themselves intelligible to one another, and human nature being so much the same everywhere, we should expect to find—as we do find—that all languages resemble one another in their modes and habits—sometimes more, sometimes less, but all in a certain measure. In other words, there are such things as *general laws of language*, not only for particular groups of related languages, but also for all languages whatsoever. Of course, to gain a real, personal, and strictly formal knowledge of these general laws—or, let me say, general

*English Literature Teaching in Schools. 1s. 6d. Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner, & Co. As to somewhat similar work may be continued in the teaching of Latin later on I would refer you to an excellent little pamphlet by Professor W. J. Hale, on "The Art of Reading Latin," published ten years ago by Ginn & Co., of Boston.

modes and habits—of language, the learner would have to study several particular languages, which a very young learner cannot do effectively and should not be encouraged to attempt at all. But what I want to point out is that in directing the study of any particular language there are always certain matters on which we have to lay special stress and make as clear as we can. Amongst these will naturally be the characteristics peculiar to the language in question ; but there should also be amongst them characteristics which it shares in common with language in general ; and these should have special attention and be made specially clear. So that, in the case I have been referring to, a boy would pass from English to Latin not only with a knowledge of what is peculiarly English, but also with some knowledge, informal no doubt, of the general modes and habits of language—the functions of the parts of speech, the nature of a sentence, the use of inflexions and auxiliaries, etc., etc. That the ordinary boy does not bring this informal general knowledge with him in any noticeable quantity is a fact familiar to us all. And the reason for this is partly that we are in such a desperate hurry to get him into Latin or French, and partly that we teach English—and Latin too, for the matter of that—so mechanically and unintelligently. I do not make this assertion about our English teaching at random. Every year I have to examine in this subject some hundreds of candidates who have either just left school or are just about to leave. Or, if you wish to verify the assertion for your selves, you have but to glance into any one of the myriad English grammars that cast their baleful twilight over the junior forms of our schools. The writers themselves do not understand the general modes and habits of language ; and when they try to deal

with them they do but darken the air with the dust of old formulas and fallacies which they raise. You will find words and things constantly confused, talks about the *gender* of English nouns, calculated to cloud a boy's mind on the meaning of gender for the rest of his natural life, phrases called "prepositional" because they happen to *begin* with a preposition, that which is really a *limitation* almost always called an *extension*, and so on, and so on. But enough of this for the present, or you will think that I consider grammatical details all-important at the very beginning of a language—which is not the case.

THE EARLIER STUDY.

It seems to me that, from the very start, we confuse our pupils by failing to bring home to them that language is the means employed by human beings to make themselves intelligible to one another ; and that the habits and ways of language spring directly or indirectly from that fact. (This would have to be slightly modified later on, when we deal with purely artistic literature ; but here I am only dealing with beginnings). To accomplish this, in my opinion, we should deal with simple thoughts and feelings, and the manner in which a knowledge of these can be conveyed from one to another—with simple literature, in short. We may take some simple thought, with its attendant feelings, and, having talked them over sufficiently, we may try to put them into words, and then turn to a master of good English and see how he expresses them ; or we may start with the author's words and arrive inductively at the thought and feelings, which he intended to convey. The uses and values of metaphores, similes, epithets, order of words, etc., will be considered, though in a quite rudimentary and untechnical way—but always from the point of view that

they are the means for the expression of thought and feeling. But all this, and much else of a like kind, belongs to the rudimentary stages of literature teaching, which I have treated fully elsewhere.* No doubt grammar will slowly and naturally emerge from work of this sort—at first very informal, then gradually formalized—but in the initial stage, not a word of it. What we are striving for is to help our pupils to gain some knowledge of the nature of language, not for grammar—grammar of itself will come uncalled for—it often does though in another sense, in our editions of English classics). It will come naturally and intelligibly when it is wanted, and need not be lugged in by the ears.

Well, let us suppose that our small boys have studied some very simple literature in the manner I have described—observing and unweaving the language of others to get at the thoughts, and using language themselves to express their own thoughts—and that in this way they have gained some acquaintance with language as a means of expressing thought. Then, *keeping this view always before us*, we may pass on to study the mechanism of language more in detail. We shall know that to make a sentence or statement is to express a thought so that it may be intelligible. Whether it is a *complete* thought they do not know—nor, to tell you the truth, do I. But we shall have some acquaintance with the *complete statement* or expression of a thought. This we shall call a “sentence,” and this we shall proceed to examine. It will not take us long to see that it consists of two parts; that which tells us what we are speaking about, and that which consists of what we say about it. But, placing this fact aside for the moment, let us examine the sentence word by word so as to find out the special value of each word in the expression of the thought. We

can best do this by comparing the sentence as it stands with the same sentence when the word is left out, and then with the sentence when for the word in question other words are substituted which make sense. In this way we shall learn the function of each word—what it does for us—in the particular statement; and we shall group together the words which do the same kind of thing. (I do not want to bore you with details; but I must give some details, otherwise I shall not be understood.) After doing a good deal of work of this kind, our next step is to group together the functions which closely resemble each other. The functions of telling us *which things*, *what kind of things*, and *how many things* we are speaking about will go in one group; those of *naming* in another; those of *asserting what a thing does*, or *in what state it exists*, in a third; and so on. We shall, in this way, get eight groups, and these we shall name in the usual way, *adjective*, *noun*, *verb*, etc. Then the boys will have to use language to express their own thoughts; for they must *make* a definition for each group, not swallow a ready-made one. This I consider a matter of very great importance in the kind of study I am advocating. The sorting of the functions into groups, the testing of the groups, and the framing of the definitions can all be made very interesting and of decided educational value. Of course the definitions will be immediately tested by application to fresh instances, and will not be perfect at first, but be slowly perfected by experience.

THE DANGER OF DEFINITIONS.

If we are to judge by the ordinary grammar text-books, it is only at this point that we enter on the domain of grammar, for they invariably begin with ready-made definitions. I do not particularly care where

the frontiers are marked. My aim is to give my boys an acquaintance with the modes and habits of language in their more general aspects ; and I hold that, whether you call it grammar or not, the plan I am advocating will effect what I want. It is true that there is grave danger that boys who study language in this way may come to look upon grammar as a science, which states the facts of language, and not an art—the art of speaking and writing correctly. But this would not distress me much.

A word or two about definitions before we pass on. To provide our boys with ready-made definitions not only deprives them of much valuable exercise, but also is very likely indeed to give them false ideas of the nature of language. They are apt to look upon language as the invention of some primeval person or persons, springing full-grown from their brains as Athena did from the brain of Zeus, and provided with a complete set of laws and regulations as binding and unalterable as the laws of the Medes and Persians—instead of a slow natural growth, as slow and as natural as other human growths. When, as a proof of the rightness of the definition, the derivation is added, confusion becomes worse confounded. The derivation can only tell us what idea the original makers or adopters of the name had in their minds ; and that idea may have been right or may have been wrong, or, like most things human, partly the one and partly the other. Words have not fixed innate meanings of their own ; they mean just what those who use them agree from time to time that they shall mean—and that may in the long run have little or nothing to do with the original meaning. The growth and change in the meaning of words is familiar to us all ; and its history, which the great “Oxford Dictionary” is making possible for us in English, is valuable

and extremely interesting—more interesting to my mind than the history of the growth and change of form. Educationally also it is of great value ; but it does not belong to the stage we are discussing ; and the ill-timed dragging in of derivations will hinder and not help the study of it. There is, moreover, another drawback to the giving of ready-made definitions ; errors and mis-statements creep into them and are handed down unchanged from generation to generation ; which would not be the case were the work leading up to definition constantly redone. I suppose we may hope that before very long we shall not find, even in Latin grammars, adjectives defined as “qualifying nouns”—a dark saying at best, even if we substitute “things” for “nouns.” Perhaps with it there may vanish the idea that verbs are of two classes, those which tell us “what a thing does” ; and, secondly (to use their own vile phrase), “what a thing is done to.” The textbooks, it is true, do not often themselves adopt this classification, but somehow (I speak as an examiner) they allow the idea to get into the learners’ minds—some of whom gaily add the startling information that the latter class is called “intransitive.” But there is one definition which age cannot wither nor can custom stale. I mean that which tells us that “a pronoun is a word which stands instead of a noun.” Those who are learned in such matters inform us, as I understand, that pronoun-roots are as old as, or older than, noun-roots in language ; that there never was a period in language destitute of pronouns, or, in other words, that it was often found sufficient at first to indicate by reference or gesture what one was speaking about instead of giving it a name—in short, the pronoun was not invented to relieve the over-worked noun. However this may be, the definition is evidently thoroughly un-

satisfactory, for it leaves out most of what it should include, and fails to mark a distinct difference. Many other parts of speech can stand instead of nouns properly so called. In a limited sense the definition is true. You can, without any other change in or addition to a sentence, substitute a noun for a pronoun—sometimes when the latter is a demonstrative, and always when it is a personal pronoun of the third person (which historically in English is a demonstrative). But you cannot do this in the case of personal pronouns of the first and second persons, or in that of a relative, interrogative, or indefinite pronoun. If you discard pronouns altogether and use nouns only, you must express your thought in a different manner, if indeed you can express it at all.

Pronouns are much harder worked than nouns, and are so few and so constantly in evidence that they have retained far more of their peculiarities of form than nouns have. The distinguishing characteristic of a pronoun is that, instead of *naming*, as a noun does, it *indicates by means of reference* what we are speaking about—a very useful plan.

THE TREATMENT OF INFLEXION.

My next stage in the teaching of English, then, would be—both for the requirements of English itself, and also for the future requirements of Latin or French—the treatment of inflexions. But what is there new in this? some one may remark. We all deal with inflexions. Yes, but the question before us is not the *fact* of treatment but the *method* of treatment. If they are dealt with dogmatically and dictatorially—as usually happens—then my boys will not gain the help I want them to gain. My plea is that we should treat the inflexions *inductively*; that we should closely observe words with their various inflexions in actual sentences, and so

learn the general functions of inflexion in the expression of thought. Having got our general idea, we may then pass on to consider the parts of speech one by one, and so learn more about the particular uses of inflexions in particular cases.* We shall not cover anything like the ground in English which we shall have to cover later on in Latin; but we shall make a beginning, and that an intelligent one. When speaking of turning phrases into single words, and single words into phrases, I stated that the exercises would give us some help when we came to the uses of inflexions and auxiliaries. Here I must give you a caution. In many cases you cannot substitute auxiliaries for inflexions and *vice versa*—not, at least, without somewhat changing the meaning, or using an un-English form of expression. For instance, English people do not say “the cat of the cousin of my aunt,” as the writers of French exercise-books seem to imagine, but “my aunt’s cousin’s cat” nor do we usually say “the building’s top” but “the top of the building”—the common practice being to reserve the inflexion for the names of things having life or which are personified. But a little care will enable you to avoid all serious difficulties—especially if you are careful to point out that a form of expression may be possible and intelligible, and yet not be the accepted one. And just one other caution. Do not invent things which do not exist in English simply because they do exist in Latin or French. Do not speak of adjectives agreeing with nouns, or of nouns in the objective or accusative case. The objective relation of a noun is not marked by an inflexion in English, but by the position of the word and the general sense of the statement. Even in Latin as often as not the accusative has no distinguishing mark of inflexion.†

This, then, is the method of dealing

with the earliest stages of the study of English which I ask you to consider. And I ask this not merely for the sake of Latin and French, but mainly for the sake of the more advanced study of English itself; and I would remind you that I am supposing the method indicated to be accompanied by a carefully graduated and liberal study of simple English literature *as literature*, that is, as the refined and skilled expression of thought and feeling. The method I have suggested does not clash with this; on the contrary, it supplements and supports the study of literature in a way in which mere codified grammar learnt by heart never can. And let me add that to a large extent I would continue the same inductive method for the first steps of Latin or French. There is one grave reason for considering this matter of the teaching of English which I would not have you ignore. In the coming organization of secondary education there will certainly be some severe battles over the curricula of our schools, and any subject which cannot justify itself as distinctly educative is likely to fare badly. There are many signs of special danger in the case of English. Badly as it has always fared, it may fare worse, or be entirely excluded if it cannot justify its place. And I for one would lift no voice in favor of English grammar taught in the ordinary dogmatic way. Even while writing this I have received a pamphlet which is being circulated in Manchester and elsewhere, urging, amongst other things, the exclusion of English grammar from elementary schools as bewildering, wearisome, and unprofitable. There is but one answer to the plea, and that is: Let the subject be taught differently, so that it may be truly educative, or let it go. In any case we may have to let it go in order to secure a place for a true study of English literature. But

before deciding let us once more think over the matter. Let us cease to call grammar the art of speaking and writing correctly, and to appear to claim that by setting boys and girls to learn up a grammar book we shall teach them to speak and write good English. This last comes not by grammar, but by the study of good literature, and by association with those who themselves speak good English. When, to use Hooole's expression, our boys have got "some footing in the language," then formal grammar will help them to summarize, arrange, and codify that with which they are already informally acquainted. Till then it is liable to be but little better than a cause of bewilderment and sorrow.

* The whole matter is more fully treated in a lecture I delivered before the College in June, 1885, and in a little shilling book called "English Grammar for Beginners," published by Kegan Paul & Co.

† Perhaps next year I may speak to you more fully on the best way, or one of the best ways, of beginning Latin.

‡ English as the beginning of the teaching of language, with some reference to Latin.—*Educational Times*.

"STERLING."

Why is the English pound called a pound sterling? Why is the word "sterling" stamped on silverware? A newspaper tells as follows: "Among the early minters of coin in northern Europe were the dwellers of eastern Germany. They were so skilful in their calling that numbers of them were invited to England to manufacture the metal money of the kingdom. These strangers were known as 'east-erlings.' After a time the word became 'sterling,' and in this abbreviated form it has come to imply what is genuine in money, plate or character."

TO TEACH AMBITION.

"Dost thou love life, then do not squander time, for that is the stuff life is made of."—*Franklin*.

EVERY conscientious teacher must have felt, at some time or other, a sense of disappointment in his work. He must have marked with uncertain feelings that there are laggards in his classes—a feeling of joy at the strides one makes and of sorrow at the snail's pace of another. As far as my experience and observation and information go, all schools are alike in this respect. Further, the disparity in energy is seen more in the lower forms than in the upper. Perhaps the reason is that the sluggish never get out of the lower form. At any rate all get the same teaching, the teacher is as ready to answer the questions of one as of another, all the conditions are equal for all, and still there is a see-saw among the members of the class. It makes me think of the old team on the farm. The nigh horse set up a spirited gait as soon as he was hitched to the plow in the morning and kept it up all day, but old slow-and easy in the furrow always kept his end of the doubletree about two feet back unless a sharp crack from the knotted line made him take a little spurt, and even if he did catch up to his mate for a minute, the evil in his nature soon clouded his brain enough to make him forget the stroke, and feel satisfied to let the other lead.

If my figure is not too rustic, I will apply its principle to some pupils I have had. Our classes get an even start, but they do not stay even. Two weeks do not pass until we can pick out the laggards, and while all do not lag for the same reason, the fact, nevertheless, stands beyond contradiction that energy and wise application always lead to the front, and we

are safe in concluding that those who get behind are lacking in one or both of these qualities. If energy is lacking, what shall we do? Let things go? No, indeed. We will try to inspire them; and that which *is inspired* we are herein denominating *ambition*.

Now if a pupil lacks energy he is similar to a man who is dozing. Some of his faculties are asleep and require to be awakened. But, on the other hand, if the fault lies in application, the pupil is like a man who is in the dimness of ignorance and should be enlightened. The visible results are alike in each case, and although the two diseases have similar symptoms the course of cure is decidedly different for each. Hence some conscientious and much laboring pupils seem to accomplish little. The cause is—their energy is misapplied. They read and read, but never study, and hence ultimately fail. Others read little, that is spend little time at their books, and accomplish much. These are ordinarily considered clever. The proper explanation is, that these read a little and think a lot, and cultivate the habit of close thinking. This is studying; but as I may treat of this subject in a future paper, I say no more on that point now. This paper is to deal with the other class, namely, those who lack energy.

Now if anything can be done in school for this class of pupil, teachers should certainly merit a rich reward of gratitude from the world in general and from some people in particular. For while no one who needs a horse places much value on the plug, so no one who needs a man counts much on the drone, and mark you the similarity between drone bees and some men. They are both consumers, but only in one sense of the word are they producers. The drone plays an

important part in populating the hive, and the lazy man, as a rule, does not lack a healthy and numerous progeny.

And now that I have used the word "lazy," let us consider a moment whether a lazy boy is the same being as a boy without energy. Both do as little as possible. Both seem to hate to do even that. Both are active in mischief for "Satan finds some mischief still for idle hands to do." Both enjoy good appetites and sound bodies, and altogether there seems in both to be only one activity which neither cares to display, and that is the activity which we call work. We are forced then to the conclusion that laziness and lack of energy is the same disease under different names.

Has it ever been cured? It has at least been relieved. If the case is taken soon enough, we think a permanent and complete cure can be effected. The majority of lazy horses are those which are not broken until they are about six years old, also the majority of lazy boys are those whose attention is not directed to study until they are about seven or eight years of age.

For the last five years I have carefully considered in my pupils this matter of energy. Hardly a single instance has come under my observation of an indolent child who was taught to study his alphabet at three or four, and further, as a rule country parents begin to instruct their children at an earlier age than city and village parents. The result is that there are in our schools to-day more unambitious children from city, town and village homes than from the scenes of rustic industry. This apparently explains why the majority of our professional men are those who began their career on the farm.

But as we, in our secondary schools, do not get pupils in time to assure their attention to subjects for thought

at four years old, nothing remains for us but to do what we can to remedy any evil which may exist as the result of an unfortunate start. As far as I know, this matter has not been specially considered in works on pedagogy. While psychology does, to some extent, give a general and meagre treatment of the subject, the matter has never been sufficiently considered by either teachers or students in pedagogy. To my mind, this study of "How to Energize" is a "Missing Link" in pedagogical text-books. Whatever, therefore, can be learned on this matter can only be got from observation; and as my opportunities of observation have been somewhat narrow I may not yet have found anything worth giving. But I have learned some things, and will give them in the hope that some others may be inclined to do likewise for my benefit.

A few years ago, potato picking was a not uncommon occupation for me in the fall. Our potato patch was a three-cornered field and at one end the rows were necessarily short and gradually lengthened as we got farther down towards the base of the triangle. I remember well how much more energetic I was when picking the short rows, than when I came to the long ones. The reason, evidently, was that we could see the end from the beginning, and in a short time we would be at a new row. This principle is applied to my school work in this way. I make the rows short. That is, the lesson spaces are only thirty minutes long, thus, the pupils are made to feel there is no dragging out of a lesson. Everything goes with a snap. The scene changes and we are in a new lesson space. We can see the end from the beginning. The small bits are more easily chewed. The short lessons are more easily mastered and also more easily retained.

In working out this same idea there is another thing which should be mentioned. Boys and girls like to know when they start just what has to be done in the year. How unsatisfactory to us to begin a journey and not know how far we must go to complete it? Accordingly, it has worked well in my classes to give them at the beginning of the year, a complete detailed statement of the exact amount required for examination purposes. This plan is of particular value in the case of grammar of all languages. This subject, usually dry, receives a new interest when one can hold up before him a list and say, "This is my work in grammar. I know this much. When I have mastered that part which remains I will be safely grounded in this subject." Thus a pupil can tell at any time during the year, whether he has speed enough or not. The plan, when properly applied, is a great incentive, it makes the uncertain things certain and the indefinite things definite.

Two other powerful instruments in the teacher's hands are praise and punishment. Both of these know degrees. I am inclined to think that the former, when judiciously used, can accomplish most of all and should be

used very frequently, while the latter should be resorted to just as rarely.

There is one other thing to mention in this respect. On account of its importance, I think it should have the first, middle and last chapters in books on pedagogic methods, I mean the example of an energetic teacher. Nothing can inspire a pupil so much as this. Nothing can impress him more with the reality and importance of education. Nothing is more likely to make energetic men and women out of energetic boys and girls. Habits are catching. Like begets like. In breaking colts we do not hitch them first or last with balky or lazy horses, but with steady, energetic, reliable ones. So in school, we cannot expect industrious, energetic men to be turned out from a school which has a staff of listless, lazy teachers. Example is all-important.

In concluding, our contention is that energy can certainly be inspired in secondary schools, and that more attention should be given to this matter by all interested in pedagogy.

ERNEST COOMBS, M.A., B. PÆD.,

H. S. Richmond Hill.

THE TEACHER AND HIS TIMES.

NO one can doubt that the teaching in the schools now is far superior to what it was during the first, second, and third quarters of the century. The interest felt in children and youth is so much greater than during the periods referred to, as to create constant surprise to one whose experience extends over those years. And yet it may be justly asserted, and not pessimistically either, that the happiness going along with the performance of duties of life, is not as

great as it was in the earlier periods of the century. There is more physical comfort, people are better clothed, are more intelligent, the means of travel especially have been infinitely improved, and numerous articles that once were luxuries are now as easily obtained as the necessities of life.

But the happiness that arises from these things and the happiness that arises from manfully performing the duties of life, be they what they may,

are essentially different. That there is a great deal of dissatisfaction felt by a large number with the lot in life which has fallen to them, is apparent in every morning's newspaper. And the teacher who is observant and thoughtful will ask, How can these things be, seeing the teaching has been confessedly improving all along the century? And it is a very pertinent and proper question. And, besides, this dissatisfaction, to call it by this name, is evidently on the increase.

It is not proposed here to enter on the broad discussion such a topic invites, but to limit it to this: to inquire why the pupils who were in the schools from 1850 to 1875, having been taught in quite a superior manner, now, in performing the duties of life, are less happy than the youth who had his school advantages from 1800 to 1825?

Those who are somewhat familiar with what is termed the "New England idea," will remember that there was a vigorous co-operation of the home with the school; the pupil left the school to come under an ethical religious influence at home; there was inquiry as to the performance of duty in school and if chastisement had been bestowed in school, further chastisement was frequently inflicted to emphasize the co-operation of the parent with the teacher. The pupil leaves the school to-day, having been under the influence of an abler person pedagogically, and is met by influences pervading the adult life that overwhelm the impressions made. The daily newspaper with its illustrations and startling headlines, crammed with murders, lynchings, hold-ups, robberies, defalcations, burglaries, divorces, and domestic scandals, with a page on which every petty detail connected with a base-ball or foot-ball game, or a bicycle race, or the brutal pounding of one human being by an-

other, for the pleasure of a thousand onlookers, thus exalting and dignifying all these performances a thousand fold more than they rightly deserve—the daily newspaper, we say, is one of the most powerful injurious influences that meet the pupil when he leaves the school. It would be "a consummation devoutly to be wished," that the daily newspaper should not come into the hands of children in their tender years. But there are numerous other publications that exercise a subversive sway mainly upon the girls; we refer to the periodicals that make the fashion of the clothing the chief end of their being. But the newspaper is only one of many degenerating influences; the theatre has developed with startling rapidity during the past quarter of a century, and in the cities children form a good part of the audience. And such stuff as the theatre now offers to its patrons! In one case lately noted, pictures representing what might be seen in a new play, were posted directly opposite a school; here were women with as few garments on as possible, men knocking down with clubs, or shooting with revolvers—everything done to take possession of the impressionable mind which the teacher had taken such infinite pains to equip with notions of a just and honorable mode of life. A consideration of these things leads to the inevitable conclusion, that while the school has been growing in power, influences that degenerate, discourage and corrupt have been growing still faster. We have but one remedy to suggest, and that is that the teacher make his influence felt beyond the walls of the school. We think that the free lectures given in this city exemplify what we mean; the parents have some place for assemblage with their children besides the theatre. We would have the school-house made the centre of intellectual attraction for the entire district. We would

have the teachers know the parents. The subject is before our readers, and it is one of mighty importance. Let us not delude ourselves. How many of those now in the schools will

succumb to the "outside influence"? Let the teachers debate this question at their gatherings, and lay on the shelf for the time being the crossing of t's and the dotting of i's.—*Ex.*

EDITORIAL NOTES.

"Deliver not the tasks of might
To weakness, neither hide the ray
From those, not blind, who wait for
day,
Tho' sitting girt with doubtful light.

"That from Discussion's lips may fall
With Life, that, working strongly
binds—
Set in all lights by many minds,
So close the interests of all."

THE return of a certain party to power in the great city of Greater New York has fluttered the dove-cots of education as much as any of the other departments, and the interview between the chairman of one of the several educational boards and the newly elected mayor, in regard to the school subsidy required to be voted in behalf of the schools for the coming year, reveals how little the ordinary politician knows about education, either in the general or the particular. We had lately a like exhibition in some of our own provinces of the marvellous educational insight which some of our publicists have of the necessities of the case when school reform comes to be spoken of. The late conference between the mayor and the school board chairman of New York was at once embodied in a clever cartoon, which though perhaps a little too broad for publication, set the whole city on the broad grin for a week or two. The denunciatory tone of the mayor's examination of the chairman, and the exposure of his own ignorance, the greatest of trans-

Atlantic magistrates though he be, by the quiet sarcastic replies of the practical school manager, made interesting matter for the school journals, and even excited the ordinary newspaper men to turn their attention to the controversy. And now the whole question has resolved itself into who is to be superintendent of schools under the new regime. Mr. Jasper, the present superintendent, may have the position, some say, if he wants it, while others are looking for the appointment of Mr. Maxwell, superintendent of schools in Brooklyn. Dr. Harris' name has been brought forward as a possible candidate, but only in a bit of enthusiasm by one of his many admirers. Dr. Harris' life work is in the National Bureau at Washington, and long may he be spared to add to what he has already done for education; besides it is more than doubtful whether the masterful mayor of New York has ever heard of "the party called Harris."

The teachers' meetings of the year are beginning to be spoken of

already, the convention of the Ontario Association during the Easter recess, the great national gathering of teachers to be held at Washington this year in July, the Nova Scotian Association, and the Dominion Association. In view of the fact that the last three occur about the same time of the year, the arrangements to be matured for the holding of the latter should be hastened. If the Dominion Association is to hold its convention at Halifax this year, negotiations should be entered into at once with railways and steamboats for a very special rate to induce the Ontario and western teachers to go so far to the eastward. What is the executive doing? The preliminary announcement about the N.E.A. of the United States is out already stating that it is certain that the railroad rates will be more favorable than for several years. The Eastern roads have not been wholly satisfactory in their tone and temper toward the N.E.A. for a few years, but now they are the first to come in line, and that with enthusiasm. Not only will the half fare be granted and the \$2 membership guaranteed, but there will be the best terms made in recent years for the extension of tickets. There will be the best hotel arrangements in Washington in July that the association has ever had. No one hotel will have the monopoly, for there are twenty hotels, all good enough for anybody, and most of them at reasonable rates.

At the conference of headmasters in England lately, it was moved: "That the worship of athletics has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished." The mover disclaimed any intention of making an attack on athletics as such by themselves. The value depended upon a proper proportion being preserved, and athletics being kept in due subordina-

tion. Recreation ceased to be recreation if it interfered with work, and it certainly ought not to dominate. An amusement should not be turned into a serious occupation. At present there were signs that this due proportion was being lost sight of, and there were many strong forces at work to stimulate this tendency to undue proportion. There was a devotion to entertainment and sport far beyond their true value, and he thought he had properly described it as worship. Athletics were the shortest way to notoriety. He did not know any other way in which a boy of seventeen could get himself mentioned three times a week in the newspapers. No form of academic work would attract so much attention. The higher achievements at the university passed with scarcely any notice in the newspapers or otherwise. There was no telegram from the German Emperor. (Laughter.) It was, he considered, the duty of schoolmasters to say that they would exert their influence against the current and would not stimulate it. He knew that many of the tutors at the universities thought that intellectual subjects did not receive the same earnest attention they did some years ago, owing to this passion for athletics. There were colleges at which it was considered good form for every master of the college either to go down to the river or to the football field, or when there was a match going on, to watch other fellows exert themselves. That was all very well at school, but at a university it was rather out of place. He did not desire to see athletics discouraged, but only their abuse by excessive resort to them and the sacrifice of time and energies.

Mr. H. G. Wells is leading a crusade against the dead languages—or, rather, against the way they are often

taught. He asks, after alluding to the time spent on Latin and Greek, in the *Daily Mail* :—

“What are we to consider efficient teaching? If a man undertakes to teach people the bicycle, one has a means of ascertaining whether he has performed his undertaking in the ability of the learner at the end of the lessons. If we find, at the end of a costly course of lessons, that the learner can name correctly the parts of a bicycle, that he performs very precisely a number of rare and curious exercises preparatory to mounting, that, when he is placed in the saddle upon a perfectly straight road, he can progress with a certain temerarious security, but that he is unable to mount, and quite unable to ride with safety on the common circuitous ways of reality, one must conclude, I think, that the teacher has failed in his undertaking, and that the pupil has not learnt the bicycle. And if the humble bicycle-teacher asserts, in spite of these facts, that he has taught the pupil the bicycle, one can only conclude that he deals in unjustifiable pride.

“Similarly with the teaching of a language; if a man undertakes to teach, and claims to have “taught,” a language in a certain time, we have a possible test. A language has been learnt when the pupil can read at sight any matter written in that language, when he can write it correctly—for no one can read delicately into the full meaning of matter who cannot write with precision—and speak it, if not with grammatical expression, at least easily, and in a manner understandable to anyone else who has learnt the language. A pupil who has got to that pitch has, indeed, the key of a literature and a fine mental training. But if at the full end of the course of lessons he cannot do these things, if he prefers to perform instead rare and curious exercises in grammar,

history, and the like, it is, I would suggest, only reasonable to conclude that the teacher has failed in his undertaking, either because he was altogether inefficient, or because the thing he undertook was impossible so far as that pupil is concerned.

“Now all this is so manifestly sane and self-evident that I must apologise to the reader for telling him what I cannot help believing he must know already, were it not for the existing state of things in secondary schools. For it is indisputable that the middle-class boy of sixteen or seventeen, when his schoolmaster has done with him, can neither read nor write Latin, much less can he read or write Greek, in spite of the amount of time he has given to these subjects. The spirit, literature, and inspiration of classical antiquity are still as remote from him as they are from a Hottentot. At the utmost he has spelt his way painfully through one or two classical poets, blinded by a dust of grammatical points to all their melody and beauty. His classical learning is, in fact, below the level of the lower middle-class girl's piano strumming. And when his leaving examination is over he shuts his torn covers on the classics, thanking Heaven to be quit of a bore.”

The above is a blow from the shoulder out, and yet there is a reaction from the blow which Mr. Wells must feel. In studying Latin and Greek, or even French and German, does the ordinary High School pupil expect to be able to read, write and speak these languages, on his leaving school? If not, what is the object of the labor spent on these studies, if it be not merely to strengthen the student in the use of his mother tongue. The fact is the English teachers who have, after years and years spent in the struggle, gained a

fluent, practical knowledge of any of these languages, have made the game of studying them on the school benches hardly worth the candle. Their proficiency has made of them the faddists who make a mere educational means to an end, the end in itself. All language training should have but one ultimate object, and that is to perfect the student in one language through which he may express his thought clearly. "If we wish to think correctly, we must first learn to speak correctly, and to write correctly, and with that as a first and an undeniable principle, the ultimate object of the study of Latin, Greek, or even of a modern language is undoubtedly the maturing in the pupil a practical knowledge of his mother tongue. To focus the idea further, a school boy should study his Latin or his Greek, with the one object never lost sight of, namely "the turning of a sound Latin or Greek sentence into a sound English sentence." Are our teachers still satisfied with the translation that is but broken English, with the strongest indication of a Latin, Greek, or Frenchy flavor about it? Are they still sticklers for the syntax juggling, with which some class-rooms have so long been familiar? We would like to have the opinion of some of our teachers on this question, and will be pleased to give them space for an all-round discussion.

The reference which was made in a late number of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY to farming, and the unaccountable trend of young people to leave the farm for centres of population, has had the effect of directing very special attention to the subject. No class of men has better opportunities of seeing what is going on in the country than the inspectors of our Public Schools. In this number of the magazine, Inspector J. H.

Knight, Lindsay, gives advice to our farmers. We are pleased that he has taken the matter in hand.

Perhaps it is not seemly for us to discuss the educational affairs our friends of New York in this way, just as it is said to be unseemly for us to discuss the educational affairs of Canada in any other than a laudatory manner. But as long as the spirit of the present mayor of New York is to be found in any of our provinces, as long as the *turgendum capitis* of the ordinary politician seeks to bluster over our school systems to reform them retrogradewards, the unseemliness would be in our keeping silent. The shortest way to the Klondike is perhaps no business of ours, nor even the danger that would beset whaleback vessels on their way from Fort Wrangel up the Stickine. These are problems beyond the realm of an educational journal, at least so its editors and readers had perhaps better decide, seeing that there are so many questions of public interest, which the ordinary politician, even the *very* ordinary politician, may approach with impunity, but which clergymen, teachers, and educational magazines are not expected to consider, indeed are warned not to consider. But when a prominent minister advocates the teaching of agriculture in our elementary schools by teachers who know nothing about agriculture, or the cultivation of kitchen gardens in connection with these schools at a time when the children are away on their holidays, or the introduction of text-books on agriculture, among children unable to pronounce the words of their very first pages, it is surely fit and proper for the whole community, including even clergymen, teachers and educational journals to tell such a would-be statesman in plain terms that they

do not approve of his vagaries. If the people of New York are at liberty to laugh at their mayor when he talks ignorantly on educational matters, there ought to be given to all Canadians the same privilege, when during an election campaign, our platform orators undertake to elucidate to the lieges what an education department should be, and how our schools should be organized, though they be as ignorant of what education is as some of their Ottawa friends and opponents are of the routes to the Yukon. The late elections in the Province of Quebec gave the politicians there a mandate to introduce educational reforms, but it is to be feared that the measure they introduced was more of a political surprise than an educational security. The elections in Ontario are over, and what effect they will have on our educational courses and counsels cannot well be foretold for some time to come. It is said that the Quebec Education Bill will be brought forward again with all its imperfections and crudities, and any one daring to lay bare these imperfections and crudities shall be rewarded with the anathemas of the political party which has fathered them. And yet some people say that we are living in a free country!

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We are glad to hear that arrangements are being made for the annual meeting of the Dominion Association of Teachers, which will be held during the summer holidays from the 2nd to the 5th of August. This should be looked upon by all our teachers as the most important educational event of the year; and if arrangements can be made with the Intercolonial for a reduction sufficiently low to entice our teachers to make holiday this year in the eastern provinces, a large section of the holiday seekers will no doubt find their way to Halifax. A finer trip than this

can present itself in no part of the Dominion. To visit Halifax, as the oldest city of the ancient colony of Nova Scotia, with its gardens and pleasant drives, its harbour conveniences, and hotel accommodation, its citadel and arsenal and warlike environments, its many easy railway and steamboat connections with places of great historic and picturesque attractiveness, will be a treat to those who have never been there before. The programme of the convention promises to be an excellent one. The following is a full list of the executive:

President, A. H. Mackay, LL.D., F.R.S.C., Superintendent of Education, Nova Scotia. Vice Presidents: The Hon. Col. Baker, Minister of Education, British Columbia; D. J. Goggin, Esq., M.A., Supt. of Education, N. W. Territories of Canada; Hon. C. Sifton, Minister of the Interior; J. Millar, Esq., B.A., Dep. Minister of Education, Ontario; J. M. Harper, M.A., Ph.D., F.E.I.S., Inspector of High Schools, Quebec; Prof. J. B. Hall, Ph.D., Provincial Normal School, Truro; J. R. Inch, LL.D., Chief Supt. of Education, New Brunswick; D. J. McLeod, Esq., Chief Supt. of Education, Prince Edward Island. Treasurer: G. W. Parmelee, Esq., B.A., Education Dept., Quebec. Secretary: A. McKay, Supervisor of Schools, Halifax, N.S.

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The controversy between Principal Grant and Dr. Lucas may be looked upon as an educational event, though now that it is over and well over, the less said about it in these pages perhaps the better. The temperance cause is neither likely to gain or lose much by it, and we are sure nothing can be added to the reputation of Dr. Grant through the array he has made of the old facts and figures which the rum-seller and the beer drinker have too often at his finger ends. There

is but one argument in the whole thesis, and it lies in the query: Is dram drinking a good or an evil? Is the manufacture of whiskey a curse or a moral benefit to the community? Dr. Grant says that drinking a glass of wine is not a sin. But this has nothing to do with the question of prohibition. Prohibition is not meant to prevent the drinking of a glass of wine: it is intended to subdue the liquor traffic to such an extent as to produce the ease and comfort and respectability of living that is to be found in a community where no strong drink can be had, in a community where it is difficult to be had, or even in a community where the traffic has fallen into the hands of shebeen-keepers and such like. Under even the extreme circumstances, in the last case, there is surely a gain in morality, and if Dr. Grant continues to say no, he has only to travel through any Scott Act County, or any Dunkin Act town to see for himself. If there be then a gain in morality, even if it be not the great gain Dr. Grant, or any other reformer would like to see, there comes upon every one obligation to labor for rather than against prohibition, seeing there is avowedly no hardship to befall any honest man should it become the law of the land to-morrow. Besides that, there is a physical and moral gain in abstinence all our school text-books try to make plain to the rising generation. And this is why we have referred to the controversy at all. What is Dr. Grant going to do with these text books? What is he going to do with the rising generation? What *has* he done for them through this controversy? He is honest in his advocacy, no one disputes that. But in the child's way of judging, either Dr. Grant is wrong or the text-book, as the child will say, is a great hypocrite. Even the teacher who teaches total abstinence from the text-

book will pit himself against the great controversialist every time the drinking of alcohol comes up for discussion, at least so the pupil who has heard of the controversy will be apt to think. Dr. Grant has not taken sides with the alcohol manufacturer; seller or buyer, but he certainly has become an authority amongst them, and will be used as such, no doubt much against the principal's wish, as long as the prohibition contest remains with us. Even if the thesis can not be reduced to the gain in morality, the well-wisher of an improved morality will hardly get further than the verdict of *cui bono* when all has been said and done.

Some people, even as far away as Queensland, have something to say on the subject of those teachers who are always running away from the true function of the school, in his efforts to make a name for himself and his institution among the unthinking. At a teachers' meeting out there Mr. Bennett read a paper on "Charlatans," and this is what he says of the competitive examination:

"A greater charlatan than all, and one whose power grows daily, and for whose comfort *quasi* defences are made, is the competitive examination fiend. This man imagines he benefits a child (or his school enrolment) by overdriving him for the sake of a scholarship which is often worthless from a monetary point of view, the point which, I fear, prompts most parents of bright boys. When I see neurotic, high-strung boys, who are the favorite subjects of the crammer, doing nine hours' mental work daily for a doubtful benefit, my mouth is 'filled with cursing and bitterness.' *These* children are of all the most sensitive and susceptible; and for them the world, with its blighted hopes, its lost ideals, its meannesses

and its carking cares, holds prepared a scourge which such sensitive natures are ill prepared to endure. These are like delicately-balanced watches which the least rude jar disorders, yet these are mankind's chronometers. When I see the 'compensating balance'—the joyous springtime of youth—rudely torn away, I tremble for their mature years. When I see between a mere lad's eyebrows those deep perpendicular lines which are the sure sign of anxious thought—the proper burden of age—I cannot help thinking, 'Surely an enemy hath done this!' Premature failure of sight, rooted despondency, incurable pessimism, or suicide, is the fate of some of those in whom the natural buoyancy and spring is destroyed by being overtired before their time. I grant that the world is not a playground but a treadmill. I grant that the child must be gradually prepared for the burdens of life. I grant that to allow a child to make endless holiday of youth, and then suddenly put a man's full burden on him, is crueller than to gradually wean him from fun to fret. But there is a medium in all things. To grind young children five hours a day in school, two hours at special classes, and two hours at night, is a crime. The child is wearied of life before he has well begun it; and though highly cultured, does little in life because his heart has been crushed out of him, and his spirit broken. He has no desire left to reap the world's prizes, for the zest of life is gone, and they turn to Dead Sea fruit in his mouth."

There is a teacher in Dunedin, New Zealand, who has reported to the *Schoolmaster* of that colony the evolution of gymnasiums in his city. "A few school committees have bazaars in full swing," he says, "with the object of raising funds for the erection

of gymnasiums. I am of opinion very few more of the latter will be erected in our district for some time to come. Some months ago I mentioned the Board would probably refuse grants for this purpose on account of the vast inroads made upon the building fund. This was done at the last meeting, when resolution refusing further grants in this direction till March of next year was passed. Really the thing has been overdone. I am fully alive to the importance of physical education, and heartily support gymnastic training. At the same time I am of opinion schools should be satisfied with modest buildings for the purpose. The gymnastic building craze, I may term it, originated in one of our schools noted for fads. Then resulted an exhibition of follow the leader until the demands well nigh exhausted a fund which might have been more advantageously used in needful repairs and additions absolutely required to the schools and teachers' residences throughout the district. Really it has resolved itself into a question of each school committee grabbing for a grant of money in order to keep level on the score of attractiveness with the schools of their neighbors." The colony of New Zealand is evidently not yet given altogether up to the new cult, that there is nothing good but hockey. The gymnasium in Canada is but a mild and legitimate form of the craze that there is nothing in a young man to be made anything of by our newspapers than muscle.

Our Canadian teachers will read the following with great interest, as it gives them a peep into a new world of pedagogy that perhaps they had never dreamed of:

The *Queensland Educational Journal* says, "We desire to call particular attention to the fact that

the holding of these dances in the schools is fraught with evident dangers, and that the custom is increasing, at least in country districts. Of course, where the consent of the committee and the department is obtained, and proper persons take, or have imposed on them, their due responsibilities for their conduct and supervision, objectionable features are guarded against. In this matter, we contend that the teacher's wishes and views should be consulted, and where he withholds his consent, permission should not be given for holding them. Our attention has been drawn to a case where a dancing class—or periodical meetings for a dance—was held in a Provisional School, and where, we are informed, the requisite permission was given either by the committee or the department, against the wishes of the teacher. Trouble arose in this case also. Now, on the general aspect of the case, as we are informed that this practice is increasing, we would strongly urge, for the most obvious reasons, that no permission for regular meetings at dances in the school be allowed, unless the teacher himself be given the very largest powers and discretion in dealing with and controlling them. Further, that, if he consents to their being held in the school, he shall take all reasonable responsibilities for their proper conduct and supervision. We believe that the department, under its regulations dealing with the establishment of Provincial Schools, deems that it does not possess the power of withholding its permission even if it desires to do so, and that this matter in many cases in this class of schools, rests finally with the committee. If we are correctly informed as to this, we regret that it has not final power in the matter in all cases, and the power of attaching proper duties on proper persons responsible to and under its control.

School concerts, and occasional social gatherings, in which parents and pupils meet under the direction and control of the teacher and committee, are frequently held, and for very laudable purposes. But when regular meetings for dances only are held in the school; where these controlling influences are not present; where the village public-house is close by; these together present a combination of circumstances fraught with evidently grave dangers. And the fact that any supervision that can be given, does not extend, and cannot extend beyond the immediate precincts of the schoolgrounds, seems to us to be a conclusive reason that permission for such regular and frequent meetings in schools should be generally withheld, where the department has the power of withholding it. Further, if it has not entire power in this matter in some Provisional Schools, it should seek to obtain it. It is not pleasant to think on the possibility of even a Provisional School being converted into a source of such grave danger as obviously attaches in certain cases where such safeguards as we have pointed out are not present or imposed."

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We confess to a certain feeling of irritation, says the *School Journal* of England, when the "utilitarian" argument is put forward in an unintelligent way. The object of education is to produce a capable citizen of good character. The aim is distinctly utilitarian. At the same time, it deserves all the highest-sounding epithets that can be discovered. Capacity in the counting-house is not necessarily formed by the study of commercial geography and handbooks of commercial correspondence. The intelligence is to be evoked and the character formed by the best methods known to educators. When the intelligence has been once trained the

special technical knowledge can be readily acquired. That is but the veneer: 'the mainspring of character and intelligence is to be sought elsewhere. "I would rather," said a successful science teacher the other day—"I would rather my boys knew the tale of Troy than the component parts of the atmosphere." "Greek," to quote a *Times* article a few days ago, "is the key to the noblest thoughts that have moved mankind, the influence of which is still felt in every department of mental activity." Noble thought precedes noble action, and the educator's part is to endeavor to produce the noble thought.

Sir John Gorst has finally solved the educational problem which so many of us have been troubling our heads about. "Why is educational progress so slow?" "Because," says Sir John, "the administration, the Government (and mind you he is a member of the Government) of our country is in the hands of an aristocratic party, which holds its position by the will and favor of an ignorant democracy, which it therefore desires to keep in ignorance. Which of Mr. Marchand's colleagues would dare kick against the New Education Bill as high as that, or how would the Ontario Government classify a supporter of Sir John's cynicism? Freedom of speech has not been crushed out by partyism yet in the old country.

The last word has not been said about examinations, though no one has so far suggested something that would take their place. This time it is *Secondary Education* that has its opinion to express:

The complaint is not infrequently heard that the youth of the present generation are being examined to death. There is much truth in the charge, and many evils follow in the train of over-examination. The time

has come when some protest should be made against the various forms of abuse in this direction. It is not only the undue value set by the public on the mechanical test which separates the bright from the dull, but the intense rivalry that is set up between pupil and pupil, school and school, teacher and teacher, that needs healthy correction. Examining bodies vie with each other to make their schemes attractive, while the endeavor to maintain the value of their diplomas leads to constant and frequent elevation of standard until more satisfaction is felt in the numbers who fail than in those who pass. Examiners more than ever seek to find out rather what the pupils do not know than what they do know. We have even heard of high examining bodies excusing themselves for setting questions impossible of solution on the ground that it was desirable to find whether this would be discovered. "Fail all you can" were the instructions given to one examiner appointed by one of our universities. We have heard it asserted that to fail heavily is a kindness to the pupils thus thrown back. Surely these are wrong principles. To deal thus with the long, toilsome, and oftentimes expensive work of the struggling and ambitious student for the sake of teaching him a lesson is the height of callousness.

The objects of examinations are twofold: (1) To test the thoroughness and range of mental training; and (2) to gauge the capacity of the brain. If these objects were kept in view, the vagaries of examiners would be less frequently apparent. We consider that an examining body should formulate its schemes as it thinks well, fix its standard at discretion, but, having done that, it is only fair to keep in view the objects of the examination.

Examiners have their whims and idiosyncrasies. One likes to show off

his own knowledge; another seeks to entrap; a third has a too lofty opinion of what a student ought to know; a fourth looks out for ignorance rather than knowledge. Examining bodies recognize these evils; hence the appointment of moderators, who are themselves sometimes not over-careful. Perhaps the greatest evil of examinations is the merit classification of those who pass. It tends to excessive rivalry, much advertisement, and sometimes acts very detrimentally to the student, who is sent in for the same examination twice or thrice to gain position. The margin of age of public examinations has now been lowered to include pupils of tender years. The strain thus put upon youthful brains is undoubtedly felt in after years, while the exciting effect is often felt in the present. Too much mental strain lowers the vitality of the body, and renders it more susceptible of passing ailments.

We are not declaiming against the legitimate uses of examinations, but against the abuses. Examining bodies are multiplying at a rapid rate, and, in the competition thus set up, the danger lies in a tendency for schools to resort to severe cramming, or, in other words, to substitute instruction for education.

The male teachers and school inspectors of Canada will have to assert themselves in time in some such a way as they do in the British Isles, where their influence is to be felt in the councils that are ever introducing organic changes in the English, Irish or Scottish school system. "We live in an age of federation," says the *School Guardian* of England.

"We live in an age of federation. Head teachers of Elementary Schools have come to the conclusion that they have interests that are not wholly identical with those of assistant-teachers, and that for the promotion of those interests they need a special

organization. They have, therefore, formed a Federation of Head-Teachers' Associations, the first annual conference of which was held last week. The newly elected president, Mr. Steedman, of Nottingham, stated the case of the head-teachers, and called particular attention to the extent to which the management of schools is now overruled and over-shadowed by the central authorities, so that managers and head-teachers are practically snuffed out, and schools are losing all their individuality and autonomy."

OBITUARY.

THE death of Mr. Adolph Mueller, Modern Language Master, Berlin High School, is remarkable not so much for its startling suddenness, as for the manifestations of grief and affection which its announcement called forth from the large and mixed community in which the greater part of his life was spent. On the day of his funeral, a stranger would have supposed from the crowds that filled the largest church in Berlin, the thousands that lined the streets for hundreds of yards, and the sorrowful demeanor of all, that some wealthy and influential citizen was being borne to the tomb, and not one whose sole wealth was his kindness and helpfulness. Mr. Mueller's life in Berlin has shown how great and how beneficial an influence a teacher can exert in a community.

Adolph Mueller was born in Schemmel, Hanover, in 1850, and had completed his forty-eighth year on the 7th January, his last day of life and of work. He was educated in the Gymnasium of Ilfeld, came to Canada in 1869, and was soon after appointed German master in the Central School, Berlin. His remarkable efficiency in this position, together with his gentlemanly bearing and ex-

emplary character, led to his appointment in 1877 as modern language master in Berlin High School, to which he proved a tower of strength. He won the hearts of his many pupils by his manly character and his kindly interest in their welfare, their work, and their sports. This interest in the welfare of the boys led to his prominence in athletic games, especially football. Seeing the value of the Association game as a training in the combination of manliness with gentleness and in unselfish co-operation, he earnestly and generously promoted it, and after ceasing to be an active player, often gave his services as referee in matches where his tact and firmness were needed. To his colleagues his loss is irreparable. So many years' experience of his perfect courtesy, loyalty, and unselfishness has endeared him to them beyond expression.

Mr. Mueller sympathized with every side of human life. He was a lover of literature and art, a man of wide information, and a delightful companion. Having left Germany mainly in consequence of his attachment to the royal House of Hanover, he readily became a loyal subject of the same illustrious house in its Canadian dominions, but retaining

his love for the Vaterland, he became a connecting link between the English and the Germans of Waterloo County. Always ready to aid in any effort for the good of the community, he became secretary and chief promoter of many worthy enterprises. In particular, he took an active and laborious part in founding the Berlin and Waterloo Hospital, continuing his care of the institution to the end of his life. True to the faith of his fathers, he was one of the most faithful members of St. Peter's (Lutheran) Church, Berlin, and, when needed, among its most active and trusted office-bearers. But it was not alone in public channels that his beneficence flowed. The writer of these lines has knowledge of many deeds of kindness not publicly known, such as procuring employment for the needy, watching with the sick, efforts to help the weak. One need not wonder, then, at the display of tender feeling, honorable alike to the departed and to the community. It was a tribute to the noble character of one of whom it may truly be said that

His life was gentle and the elements
So mixed in him that Nature might stand
up
And say to all the world, "This was a
man!"

CURRENT EVENTS AND COMMENTS.

THE alterations in the scheme of George Heriot's Trust, Edinburgh, have received legal sanction. Among the changes made are the following:—The arbitrary age limit for admission to the Hospital School has been changed to an educational qualification, the number of free scholarships open to pupils in attendance has been increased from sixty to one hundred, travelling scholarships

of £100 have been instituted for teachers who have graduated in the University of Edinburgh and taken the Schoolmaster's Diploma, and the amount of money for bursaries generally will be increased by 50 per cent. When the revised scheme is in full operation, there will be about fifty women and at least fifty men at the University of Edinburgh holding Heriot bursaries. In issuing the re-

gulations for the next examination for leaving certificates, the Scottish Education Department deprecates the present practice of sending in very young pupils, and trusts that in future candidates below thirteen years of age will not be presented unless their presentation is warranted by special circumstances. At a dinner given in celebration of the 216th anniversary of the Edinburgh Merchant Company, the chief speaker was Sir Henry Craik, who took as his subject a proposition that he had already advanced on several occasions, this, to wit, that in technical education there is an undue hurry to achieve immediate results, that many reformers seem enamoured of "raw haste, half-sister to delay." He contended that the schools should not be workshops, but places rather where the foundations of all successful work are laid.

There is encouragement for the self-taught boy in the success of Mr. George Unwin, B.A., of England, who was educated up till thirteen years of age in an elementary school, and then for the next seven years a clerk in a hat warehouse. From the warehouse he won a scholarship at University College, Cardiff, and thence passed to Oxford as Scholar of Lincoln, whence he graduated last summer with first class honors in the school of *Literæ Humaniores*. His coming to Oxford was due largely to his desire to qualify himself for University Extension work, and after a successful trial at the recent summer meeting, Mr. Unwin was appointed by the Oxford delegates to a junior lectureship in ancient history and philosophy. His ambition is to attract the attention of working men—more particularly in the North of England—to these subjects.

During the past two weeks a lively controversy has been raging in Ber-

lin on the subject of the salaries of the teachers in the elementary schools which are under the control of the town council. Recent legislation in the Prussian Landtag has raised the whole question of the scale on which elementary school teachers shall be paid. Hitherto the salaries paid to this grade of teachers in Berlin have been notably above the average paid in Prussia. Starting with 60*l.* a year, the Berlin elementary school teacher's salary has, since 1894, risen by regular increments to a maximum of 190*l.*, reached after thirty-two years' service. In addition to this, however, he has drawn an annual allowance of 30*l.* to meet the rent of his apartments. A committee of the town council was recently appointed to reconsider this scale. The committee proposed that Berlin should continue to lead the market. Legislation having brought the practice of other districts nearer to the level hitherto adopted in Berlin, the committee recommended that the capital should again take a step forward and raise the rate of salaries. The proposal was that the teachers should begin at 68*l.* a year (retaining their allowance of 30*l.* a year towards rent) and rise by regular increments to a maximum of 200*l.* a year, to be attained after thirty-two years' service. Against this there was tabled a hostile amendment, which proposed a commencing salary of 50*l.* a year (with the added allowance of 30*l.* a year towards rent), rising by increments to a maximum of 200*l.*, attainable after thirty-one years' service. The latter scheme thus proposed to curtail a teacher's income at the beginning of his career, but to enable him to reach, at a date somewhat earlier than that named by the committee, a maximum which is 10*l.* in excess of that attainable under the regulations hitherto in force. The question came up for settlement on November 18, and led to an animated

debate. The Council Chamber was crowded, and the excitement general. The proposals of the committee were rejected, and the hostile amendment, which stood in the name of Lawyer Cassel, was carried by a considerable majority (sixty-four votes to thirty-eight). But the matter has not been allowed to rest there. Public opinion in Berlin has been a good deal stirred by the decision of the town council. The teachers' papers are full of indignant comments, which find an echo in important sections of the general press. Statistical calculations are bandied to and fro. It is argued by the one side, that the Berlin teachers are being meanly treated; by the other side, that there is no sufficient cause for increasing their salaries at the present time. The advocates of Herr Cassel's motion contend that Berlin has no reason to become lavish in its expenditure because other cities have begun to level up their payment to a reasonable level. The Berlin teachers and their friends, on the other hand, argue that living is so much dearer in Berlin than under ordinary conditions elsewhere, that it will always be fair for salaries in the capital to be in advance of those paid in provincial cities.—*Journal of Education.*

According to the *Journal of Education* in England, there is as much misunderstanding about the new University for Ireland as there was about the Quebec Education Bill. "Irish University affairs," says that organ, "are all in the air just now. It seems to be assumed quite generally that Government will next session bring in a Bill for the establishment of a Catholic University in Ireland. Under these circumstances one of the London dailies narrates the pertinent advice given to Mr. Arthur Balfour, when he accepted the post of Chief Secretary, by Lord Morris, then Chief

Justice: 'Young man,' said the great officer of law, 'you don't know much about Irish affairs. Take the advice of an owld man who knows a great dale. Let no divil of mischief ever tempt ye to touch the Irish education question.' We are ourselves inclined to think that a little more time might easily be granted to the Royal University, so that Catholics may learn to know what they really want, even supposing the Government should be willing to endow a Catholic University. The Royal has not yet been at work sixteen years—it is perfectly open; Trinity is so substantially, so that there exists no crying grievance. It is idle to compare Ireland with Scotland as regards the number of its Universities. Although Scotland had three Universities founded within a century—St. Andrews in 1411, Glasgow in 1450, Aberdeen in 1494—yet no two appear within twenty years of each other. And, though Scotland is a 'poor' country, yet since the Reformation it has not been poor educationally. Until the present generation, its primary and secondary systems have made it a pioneer in matters educational. Ireland has scarcely felt the wave of reform which has passed over Britain, and has made many of us so alive to the fact that education is linked, and must be co-ordinated, from the lowest primary school up to the University itself. We shall give next month an interview with Monsignor Molloy which is an able exposition of Catholic aspirations."

A curious case has occurred in connection with an English Board of School Guardian, which gives us an interesting glimpse at the way the cunning of Christian muscularity advocates has sought to make out of the disresponsible essence of a healthy exercise for boys. Is there a School

Board in Canada that would venture, or need venture, so far towards the comical phases of physical culture? The Edmonton Board of Guardians may (says the *Evening Standard*) be congratulated upon a very sensible performance. They are equipping the Chase Farm Schools with gymnastic apparatus, and the daring proposal was made that three sets of boxing-gloves should be included for the pauper boys. Some of the members recoiled in horror from the idea, foremost among them the two lady guardians. It is easy to imagine the arguments that were used. The gloves would brutalize the boys, would turn their innocent minds to deeds of blood, and prove the source of a career of destruction. It may possibly have been urged that if boys were taught to box, they might want to be soldiers when they grew up, and this calamitous prospect must be averted at all costs. So the minority—happily it proved to be a minority—moved an amendment providing that the gloves should be omitted from the equipment of the gymnasium. But the board numbers a majority of common-sense people, and the amendment was defeated. We are glad, though not surprised, to see the names of two clergymen among the champions of the gloves, for clergymen know from their own school days, and from their frequent association with the young, that the boy who is taught to receive and give a fair blow is likely to become all the better man for it. We have never countenanced the pampering of poor law school children, any more than of Board school children, to ideas and pursuits incompatible with their future condition of life. Piano-playing and the like is an absurdity. But a boy has to look after himself in his encounter with the world, physically as well as intellectually and morally. There are times when it

is absolutely necessary for him to show fight in the literal sense, and if his early training has included an introduction to the art and science of boxing, he has reason to be grateful. If schoolboys of all grades and classes learned nothing worse than boxing, the "unco' guid" would have little to complain of."

Sir John Lubbock has lately been sounding a note which has been sounded frequently in Canada in connection with our University training and the course of study and manner of examination. In defining the position of London University he thus quoted his predecessor's words: "As people talk very much and understand very little about what they called University teaching, I will try and explain the subject. The word 'University' as used at Oxford and Cambridge has two distinct meanings. Its proper meaning is the body incorporated by the Crown, which has by virtue of that incorporation the privilege of conferring a degree. In this sense the universities are not teaching bodies at all. There is, however, another sense in which the word University is used; it is used to include the colleges, . . . and it is in this sense that the term 'University teaching' is used. Now, is the union of teaching and conferring degrees in the same hands a good or an evil? There is no other way of explaining the admitted fact that at both Oxford and Cambridge the degree is so low . . . because those who teach, instead of working up to a fixed standard, can fix the standard for themselves. Nothing would improve the universities as teaching bodies so much as to take out of their hands the power of conferring the ordinary pass degree. . . ."

The existing provision for agricultural education in England and Wales is adequately summarized in the Report of the Board of Agriculture for 1896-7, rendering an account of the stewardship of the Parliamentary grant of some £8,000, which has been entrusted to that Department for educational purpose. Of £6,950, distributed among various institutions, £6,000 was allocated to eight collegiate centres. It appears from a return that twenty County Councils are acting "in more or less close association" with these centres. It is estimated that in 1896-7, out of £513,000 allotted to all forms of technical education in fifty English counties, £78,000 was devoted to instruction of a character "which could be separately distinguished as agricultural." Instruction in dairy-work was given in all but six of the counties, and experimental work undertaken by twenty-eight out of fifty in England, and by seven out of twelve Welsh counties.

Professor Mahaffy is after the utilitarians with these words, and these are not very original either, though emphatic: "The first function, then at least, in order of time, is to afford a complete and thorough training especially in those great subjects called useless by the vulgar, but which are the real salt of any higher culture. And next, these Universities should provide the most suitable home for the prosecution of Research, where men who have completed their training can live in the midst of books and laboratories and observatories, prosecuting those studies which enlarge the boundaries of knowledge."

Speaking at a prize-giving function in Yorkshire, Sir John Lubbock drew the attention of his audience to Mr. Hamerton's statement that in the University of France it was much

more easy to get a degree by imperfectly learning a dozen things than by thoroughly learning two things, and remarked as follows: "There were, of course, exceptions. Even a slight knowledge of Latin and Greek was useful from the light they threw upon English. But, with some exceptions, it was better to know one or two languages well than several slightly. The case of natural science was different. Every one should be well grounded in arithmetic, geography, geology, physics, chemistry, and biology, before attempting to proceed further. He said well grounded, which was a very different thing from having a smattering. What was a smattering? The knowledge of a few isolated facts. That was of little use; but to be well grounded was another matter."

A banquet was lately given in Trinity College, Dublin, in honor of the centenary of the death of Edmund Burke. About 108 distinguished guests were present, including the Lord Lieutenant, and Irishmen holding important posts or notable in the world of letters. The dining-hall was brilliant with colored lights, flowers, plants, and the College plate; and Burke's portrait was wreathed in laurel. The table was in the shape of a St. Andrew's cross, which appeared to give such a position to the speakers that they were very badly heard—a great drawback to the success of the evening. The speeches of Mr. Lecky and Professor Dowden were the most remarkable, especially that of Dr. Dowden, which is perhaps the most beautiful and just criticism of Burke he has yet put forth.

The "Speer method" of teaching arithmetic which is in use in many of the public schools of Chicago is based on educational principles derived from

psychology. One important fact of psychology is that three steps are necessary for complete thinking. A sense-stimulus must pass to a brain-centre, and there form an image. Following the formation of the image should be its expression in doing, and in oral and written language. In overlooking the development of the imagining centres and demanding expression before impression, lies the weakness of a large portion of ordinary teaching. In the Speer method the teaching is less formal but more informing. Elementary mathematical work appeals pre-eminently to the motor and and sight centres. Hence orderly activity must be made a powerful help toward the desired end. Furthermore the child is made in harmony with the teachings of science to advance gradually from the indefinite to the definite. This new method abolishes the bugbear of a child's school life, viz., the separating and combining of symbols in tabular form.

The notice about Notes in Schools from the Minister of Education, which appeared in our columns last month, was most timely. Nothing destroys the consciousness of power in a teacher more and sooner than making use of notes, *in* his classes, prepared by another. We are glad to know that many teachers appreciate highly the action of the Minister.

In reply to imputations of neglect of University interests in connection with recent legislation, the Council of the University of Toronto have issued a statement in which it is affirmed (1) No notification was given to the Council of University College of the intention to introduce the above bill, and information of the proposed action was only obtained through the daily press a short time before the

bill was introduced. (2) On learning of the proposal to postpone the operation of the clause in the act which provides that after the lapse of six years the arts graduates of the University shall vote as members of one convocation, the council immediately communicated its objections to the Government and appointed a committee to wait on the Chancellor and request him to take similar action. (3) Although the knowledge of the intention of the Government to introduce such a bill was only known on the eve of the Chancellor's (Hon. Edward Blake) departure for England, he at once took the matter into consideration and wrote a strong letter to the head of the Government, stating his objections to the proposed amendments and protesting against the contemplated action as inimical to the best interests of the University.

Those who contend that it is inimical to the best interests of the University of Toronto, that the Government should have such complete control of all its affairs, quote the action of the ministry in the present circumstances as a full vindication of their case. It is very generally conceded that the courtesy shown to the authorities of the University by the Government in the premises, was very scant indeed. And, if this is done when the Hon. Edward Blake is Chancellor, what may not be looked for when some one else is the occupant of the Chancellor's chair? Friends of the University, attention!

A college education means that a man shall have breadth enough to understand men of various kinds before he takes up any specialization. The danger is that men do not understand other men. Men think along different lines on important subjects. The

college must give such training as shall make its students understand their fellow-men. The man who goes direct from the high school into a specialty, be it law, medicine, or theology, has not that basis of understanding his fellow men. The educated man is one that understands his surroundings. The college aims to accomplish this by planting a philosophical mode of thought in the minds of its students. True, it does not always accomplish this, but that is its aim.

Dr. James, Headmaster of Rugby School, in distributing the prizes to the scholars of the High School for Girls at Leamington, said that examinations nowadays were much criticized. They were told that examinations were very much overdone, and they heard very sad stories of overwork and breakdowns. Again, they were told that examinations set a wrong ideal and object before pupils, and taught them to work, not for the sake of knowledge, but for the sake of distinction and honors and prizes. Examinations might not bring about the best result of all—love of work for itself; but they did, no doubt, bring about very valuable results. They gave a direct stimulus to work at a time when the stimulus for the love of work itself was hardly possible. Examinations also enabled them to measure their result. He, however, hoped that examinations would not be overdone, and that teachers would be allowed to retain their freedom.

The New Zealand "Schoolmaster" tells this amusing story. The head teacher in a Sunday school was much worried by the noise of the scholars in the room next to him. At last unable to bear it any longer, he mounted a chair, and looked over the partition dividing the two rooms to see who the offenders were. Seeing one

boy a little taller than the others talking a great deal, he leant over, seized the boy by the collar, lifted him over the partition, and banged him into a chair in his room, saying: "Now, be quiet." He then, resumed his lesson until about a quarter of an hour later, when he saw a small head appear round the door, and a meek little voice said: "Please, sir, you've got our teacher."

There are signs of an awakening in even old England. The *Mail* of London has repeatedly called attention to the bad teaching in the schools as the real cause of the general stagnation of thought and the domination of ignorant trade unionism that prevails. A summer school of pedagogy was held in Oxford last summer; only thirteen attended. The plan was to have two lessons of a half hour each given to a class of boys, by the students in turn, witnessed by the rest; this was followed by criticism for an hour; followed in turn by a lecture on the principles of education. The students went home and had questions on the lectures sent them; on these a diploma was to be based. It appears that the answers to questions on the history of education were exceedingly faulty; there was a general excellence in class knowledge.

The Chicago Federation is agitating increase of salary with a vengeance. Many grade teachers voice their sentiments in the newspapers. One goes to the extent of furnishing her expense account for the year. The cry is, that teachers cannot live decently, keep up with their educational work, and save enough to carry them through the summer vacation on a salary of \$15 a week. The petition sent to the board was signed by nearly 4,000; and those who did not sign were the ones who, in the hurry, necessitated by a wish to have the petition

presented before the estimates were made, were overlooked. The sentiment is against lowering any salaries, and in favor of raising those of the grade teachers. Nearly every member of the board favors the increase. Mr. Errant, who, while on the board, made himself acquainted with the workings of the school to an extent that very few members do, said the ones who had the hardest work received the poorest pay, and the ones with the easy jobs had the highest. Mr. Lane said the matter could be adjusted if the law which allows 2 per cent. for teaching and 3 per cent. for building purposes could be changed. There was a great amount of the building fund lying idle. The teachers have always felt the injustice of the salary arrangement, but feared to move in the matter, on the principle that a small salary was better than none. Something must result from this agitation, as the women who have taken hold of the matter know whereof they speak, and have succeeded in attracting the attention of those who are in a position to effect a reform.

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The *School Journal*, in referring to the New York conference between the mayor and chairman Hubbell, says:

What will be done with all the new branches introduced in the course of study in recent years, is a problem of particular interest to special supervisors and their assistants, Mayor Van Wyck's pedagogic judgment, as aired in his amicable conference with Mr. Hubbell, is opposed to everything but cooking and sewing, since the supervisors of all other subjects have been brought into office by the dreaded reformers. He is especially opposed to manual training, as the only object this can possibly have in his opinion is a pugilistic one, he not knowing any other use of the hand. Still, even Supt. Luckey, of Pittsburg, had to submit to the arguments of the

new education apostles, and perhaps even Mayor Van Wyck may be convinced that there are some people just as expert in pedagogy as he. No one need seriously doubt that any backward steps will be taken. Mr. Jasper is heartily in favor of progress, and his decision will finally prevail. The only harm Mr. Van Wyck can do, if he insists on carrying out his own notions of teaching, will be to cut down the appropriations for educational purposes to so small a figure that it will be simply impossible to employ special supervisors. In that event, the studies will not be abolished, for the superintendents will carry them on, but the work may be seriously crippled. New Yorkers in the boroughs will not allow the schools to become the football of politicians. The mayor will soon find out that it is wiser to return to the tutelage under which he was during the campaign, and which kept him so spell-bound that many voters began to believe he was only a myth.

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The Matteawan board of education has received complaint regarding the dissection of a cat by one of the teachers in the free school. Miss Nearing, the teacher, had one of the boys catch a kitten for her. She chloroformed it, dissected it, and showed it before the class in physiology. There are sixteen members of the class, nine of them being young girls from eleven to fifteen years of age. This, doubtless, would have been the end of it had not the dissected parts been passed around among the classes of smaller pupils. Some of the young girls revolted at the sight, and could eat no dinner. A year ago a similar operation at the school aroused indignation throughout the state. A pet cat belonging to one of the smaller pupils was used as a subject, and the little child knew nothing concerning it until it had been

killed. Later.—The board of education has adopted a resolution expressing disapproval of the dissection, and has informed the principal that anything pertaining to the dissection of animals in the public schools is prohibited. A repetition of the offence will be considered sufficient grounds for the dismissal of the teacher. Prin. G. R. Miller, under whose supervision the dissection was made, has tendered his resignation. It is reported that Miss Frances Nearing, the physiology teacher who conducted the dissection, will also resign.

LEARNING AND TEACHING LIFE.

One bright morning the great Edison called his son to him and spake thus: "Thomas, my son, you know almost as much as your father, but what you know will never be of use to you until you know men. Get out, Thomas, and study men. Brush up against the world for a while, and let us see what you are made of. You have good ideas, work them. Good morning."

Why should the reading of this little incident suggest *teachers*? But it did. This view of a preparation for work always does suggest teachers. They need this miscellaneous mixing with the world more than any other class of women workers, and they get the least of it. Why? "No time!" "Too busy!" are the regulation excuses. There are other reasons besides these. Teachers do not realize that free, wholesome intercourse with the world helps them to be better teachers. Such a thought never occurs to them. They have little taste and little time for mixing with people who have no special interest in teachers or schools.

But there *is* a preparation for the teaching and training of children in this contact with every phase of life—in this "brushing up against the

world;" and it is a preparation that cannot be furnished by experts in pedagogy or in normal schools.

If teachers will go to evening socials, entertainments, fairs and clubs where schools are never mentioned; if they can enter into fun with boys and girls in the game-playing stage; if they can look on at a "society" reception, where the width of a hem or the shade of a ribbon is of eternal moment; if they can listen when business men talk business; if they can watch men differ in politics; if they could overhear publishers discuss purchases, profits and possibilities; if they will linger while some tired, hedged-in mother deplores her monotonous, narrow life; if they can go to the theatre and be thrilled by some worthy play; if they can listen to a symphony concert; if they can see a good picture and hear it interpreted; if they can get inside the life of that ragged newsboy, calling "papers," on the street;—if teachers could do all of these things and many more of the same kind, what would it do for them?

The Republican members of the New York legislature have unanimously decided in caucus to re-elect Dr. Charles R. Skinner as state superintendent. This is practically equivalent to an election, as the Republicans control the majority of votes. Dr. Skinner is one of the best-known educationists in the United States, having been president of the National Education Association last year.

"And so beside the silent sea
I wait the muffled oar,
No harm from Him can come to me
On ocean or on shore.

I know not where His islands lift
Their fronded palms in air;
I only know I cannot drift
Beyond His love and care."

SCHOOL WORK.

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES.

A MATEUR astronomers have for some time past been regretting the "dearth of comets," no respectable member of this class having been seen since 1893. During the present year there are due three of the small periodic comets, to observe which, however, requires considerable aperture. The most interesting of these is Encke's comet, due at perihelion about the end of May. This was the body so persistent in refusing to maintain a regular periodic time that it gave the discoverer the idea of a resisting medium in space. There is no doubt now that the perturbations are due to the influence of the minor planets. Quite recently attempts have been made to make the small irregularities in the motion of Mercury tell against the Newtonian law of gravitation. Because observation does not record the results predicted by mathematical analysis exactly, it has been held that possibly there is some small correction to be applied to the law of the "inverse square of the distance." We have so built our faith upon Newton that it is hard, indeed, to listen to a word against his philosophy, and probably most of us will attribute little irregularities to any other cause than a flaw in the fundamental theory. It should be said too in our own defence that the observations are recorded to a degree of nicety too startlingly minute. We become suspicious of instruments that give very small fractions of seconds. It is worthy of note, however, that Newton's law is really assailed in very high circles among astronomers.

Observers of the sun who have formed opinions regarding the phenomena of sunspots will be glad to know that it is quite in order to express

opinions regarding one point at least—whether a spot is an elevation or a depression. The old Wilsonian theory, as it was called, treated a spot as a cavity, but very careful observations and drawings tell considerably against this view. The astronomers at Stonyhurst Observatory have, for some time past, been specially interested in the question and quite recently presented a vast number of drawings for study, and on the whole contending that the depression theory is the correct one. Certainly any one who looks a few minutes at a good specimen of a sun spot, gathers the impression of a "big hole." But, of course, we must always look out for purely subjective phenomena in these matters.

The planetary observer will find much to interest him during March. Jupiter is in opposition to the sun on the 25th, and consequently at his nearest approach to us this year. The angular diameter is 42 seconds of arc, and under a power of 70 this gives us a disc nearly twice the diameter of the moon to the unaided eye. The belts should be well seen if the weather is at all favorable. At about midnight on March 10th we may see all the satellites on the west side of the planet, and again on the 31st when Sats. II and III will appear like a double star. On the night of March 22nd they will all be on the east side and in the order of their designations.

Saturn is still a morning star, in the constellation Scorpio, and presents during March the phenomenon of being "stationary," due to the relative positions of the earth and the planet. Of course theoretically this phenomenon lasts only for an instant, as Saturn passes from direct to retrograde motion in right ascension; but

to the old observers, not armed with delicate instruments, a fixed position would be noted for several days.

Venus has now passed to the east of the sun, and is therefore evening star. The only interest attached to the planet now is that it is almost a

full disc. Being so close to the sun it will be difficult to find or to see at all in a small telescope; it will be interesting to note just when the limit for naked eye observation is reached.

THOMAS LINDSAY.

Toronto.

TRIGONOMETRY, 1897.

C. P. MUCKLE, B.A.

1. Which is the greater angle, the complement of a radian or the supplement of $166\frac{2}{3}$ grades? Express the difference, if any, in circular measure.

Circular measure of the complement of a radian $= \frac{\pi}{2} - 1$.

The supplement of $166\frac{2}{3}$ grades $= 33\frac{1}{3}$ grades $= \frac{1}{3}$ a right angle.

$\therefore$ circular measure of $\frac{1}{3}$ a right angle $= \frac{\pi}{6}$

The difference $= \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - 1 \right) - \frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{\pi}{3} - 1$, a positive quantity.

$\therefore$ the first angle is the greater.

2. $\tan A = \frac{3}{8}$, and $\tan B = \frac{8}{15}$; find $\sin A$, $\sin B$, and $\sin (A + B)$, A and B being acute angles.

$$(\text{Book work}). \quad \sin A = \frac{\tan A}{\sqrt{1 + \tan^2 A}} = \frac{\frac{3}{8}}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{3}{8}\right)^2}} = \frac{39}{89}$$

$$\therefore \cos A = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{3}{8}\right)^2} = \frac{8}{89}$$

$$\text{Similarly } \sin B = \frac{8}{17}, \cos B = \frac{15}{17}$$

$$\therefore \sin (A + B) = \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B = \frac{39}{89} \times \frac{15}{17} + \frac{80}{89} \times \frac{8}{17} = \frac{1225}{1513}$$

3. Prove the following identities:—

$$(a) \quad \frac{2 \sin A - \sin 2A}{2 \sin A + \sin 2A} = \tan^2 \frac{A}{2}$$

$$(b) \quad \operatorname{cosec} 2A + \cot 2A = \cot A.$$

$$(a) \quad \frac{2 \sin A - \sin 2A}{2 \sin A + \sin 2A} = \frac{1 - \cos A}{1 + \cos A} = \frac{2 \sin^2 \frac{A}{2}}{2 \cos^2 \frac{A}{2}} = \tan^2 \frac{A}{2}$$

$$(b) \quad \operatorname{cosec} 2A + \cot 2A = \frac{1}{\sin 2A} + \frac{\cos 2A}{\sin 2A} = \frac{1 + \cos 2A}{\sin 2A} =$$

$$\frac{2 \cos^2 A}{2 \sin A \cos A} = \cot A$$

4. (a) Express the value of $\tan (A + B + C)$ in terms of A , $\tan B$, and $\tan C$.

(b) If $A + B + C = \pi$, and $\tan A = 1$, and $\tan B = 2$; find $\tan C$.

(a) Book work.

(b) $\tan A + B + C = \tan \pi = 0$

$$\text{and } \tan \overline{A + B + C} = \frac{\tan A + \tan B + \tan C - \tan A \tan B \tan C}{1 - \tan B \tan C - \tan C \tan A - \tan A \tan B} = 0$$

$$\therefore \tan A + \tan B + \tan C - \tan A \tan B \tan C = 0$$

$\therefore$ substituting, $\tan A = 1$, $\tan B = 2$, $3 - \tan C = 0$, or $\tan C = 3$.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

A very fine appreciation of the work of Lewis Carroll in imaginative fiction is reproduced from the *London Spectator* in *Littell's Living Age* of February 26.

The *Century Magazine* in its February number pays a great deal of attention to the Klondyke; this northern fastness is getting to be rather a tiresome place. There seems to be nothing there but gold, which, after all, exists in other places. Among the more pleasing articles may be mentioned "Songs of American Birds," by John Burroughs. "Richard Wilson," by John C. Vandyke and "Women Composers," by Rupert Hughes. The reproductions illustrating the article on "Richard Wilson" are extremely pleasing. There is something in the "Adventures of Francois" that there was not in Hugh Wynn, perhaps the hero in the latter was too immaculate, too stalwart, too far from deserving misfortune. At any rate Francois will prove more lively and loveable to people at least who are not particularly appealed to by an account of the American Revolution.

"Cuts of Beef and Their Uses" is the title of one of these practical and scientific articles for which the *Table Talk* is noted. The February number also contains an amusing

compilation entitled "Short Sermons on Gastronomic Texts."

Among the many interesting things to be found in the February *Bookbuyer* are portraits of Richard Harding Davis (quite a new view), Richard Wagner, W. J. Linton, Anthony Hope and George Gissing. There is also a review of Mr. Gissing's work, and a reproduction of a plan of the Castle of Zenda which has been reduced to drawing by an enterprising architect.

There is nothing harder than to end a charming serial well. The more the reader has been pleased the more difficult it is to arouse a feeling of satisfaction with the moment when the story vanishes into the nothing it comes from. Both Caleb West and Penelope's Progress have come to a conclusion in the March number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, and perhaps in neither case is it quite all that fancy painted it. "The Australian Democracy," by E. L. Godkin, belongs to the type of serious and educative article which is most readily found in the *Atlantic Monthly*. It proceeds by comparison with the United States of America. The writer finds the resemblance between the two democracies great. Apparent likeness is not always real, there may be still a difference beneath the surface, and there

is if Australia and Canada belong to the same root.

"A History of Canada," by Charles G. D. Roberts. Price \$2. Boston, Lamson, Wolfe & Co. Toronto, G. N. Morang, 1897.

It is with much satisfaction we observe the demand there is for information regarding Canada on every hand, and the very creditable efforts made by Canadian writers to meet this constantly increasing demand. Heretofore, these efforts have been confined to writing histories designed for use in our public schools; histories necessarily brief, and statements of facts, compressed. Of this class, many have been written in the last forty years, and are being used in our schools with good effect. The book under review is one which was produced in the competition for a school history of the Dominion of Canada; and, naturally, it will be compared with the work which was selected as the best for the purpose. We will not enter into that comparison, tempting as it may be. Mr. Roberts is well known as one of the best Canadian poets, and also as a prose writer of high merit. Occasionally, in his history, we have noted a poetic word, used for sober, historic narrative, and, in proper times and places, he has given us specimens of poetic prose which are most welcome. Mr. Roberts' description of the fierce contest between Britain and France for America is well done; also the story of the death of Wolfe and Montcalm.

We welcome the handsome volume. Our readers will find here a compendious history of Canada, much more than a mere outline and interesting. Mr. Roberts will do well to remember that we and the islands in the Indies are the British Empire in the West.

"The First Book of Physical Geography," by R. S. Farr, has just been published by the Macmillan Company. The purpose of the author was not only to cover the entire ground in an elementary way, but to make every topic thoroughly clear, assuming only the most well-known principles of other sciences. This purpose has been fully carried out.

The book is written in a clear and pleasing style which must awaken interest, and kindle a desire for still further knowledge of the subject. Many excellent photographs and carefully executed diagrams and charts greatly add to its value. It is undoubtedly a valuable addition to the works on Physical Geography.

"Common Errors in Speaking and Writing, and How to Avoid Them," by H. I. Strang, B.A., Principal Goderich C.I. Toronto, The Copp, Clark Co.

This proves to be a revised edition of what was before known as *Strang's Exercises in False Syntax*. The author has carefully revised the exercises, omitting, rearranging, and adding where he thought he could improve them, and has prefixed to each exercise or new matter a series of practical cautions and suggestions. In this preparatory matter he has embodied the results of a long, and somewhat special experience in dealing with the subject of "Bad English," and we believe that the great majority of teachers of English, and especially the younger ones, and also private students, will find the book very helpful to them in showing them what mistakes they need specially to guard against. The book has been improved typographically also we think, and does credit to the publishers.

THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

APRIL, 1898.

SERMON BY THE ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.

HEADMASTERS' CONFERENCE, JANUARY, 1898.

THE Primate selected for his text
Hebrews v : 14.

"But strong meat belongeth to them that are of full age, even those who by reason of use have their senses exercised to discern both good and evil."

He said : This verse puts very briefly that which runs through all the Bible, and which is absolutely necessary as the principle upon which all perfect education must be based. This verse tells us what is the real education of the conscience. In all education there is of necessity implied beforehand a certain faculty, which of course varies from man to man, and requires in some degree a different treatment in different individuals ; but, nevertheless, the general character of this faculty is such that it is possible in all cases to lay down general rules by which the treatment of the faculty must be governed, if it is to be properly cultivated and developed, and all of those who are engaged in education, in some degree, either greater or less, learn this fact, and have proceeded, partly by a spirit of instinct, and partly guided by the traditions of their own education, upon lines which it is not very difficult to lay down. Educators do not need that the broad principles of education should be taught to them, although there is very great difference in the application of those principles ; and

sometimes it happens that even those who have been engaged in education do not quite see the full force of those very principles upon which, nevertheless, they are acting. Now in all education it is admitted at once that there is a difference of importance in regard to the different faculties that have to be educated. We admit without any question that there are higher and lower faculties. We do not consider that the faculty by which a boy learns to play a game is quite the same as that by which he learns some scientific subject. We speak of the one as very much higher in its own nature than the other, to say nothing of its greater utility ; and so, again, among those studies which belong to the higher faculties, there are certain studies which are more important than others, and rank higher, both in their own nature and also in the general effect that they have upon the human being. But amongst all these, I suppose no one will now question, or, at any rate, certainly no Christian will question, that the highest and most important is the conscience. The education of the conscience is the most important subject that can possibly engage the attention of those who are studying what education ought to be. There is a faculty implanted in every man from his very nature, the possession of which is ex-

pressed in the declaration made in the Bible that man is made in the image of God. He is made in the image of God because he has this divine power—the power of distinguishing between right and wrong, and he has besides the divine power to choose between those two which he will follow in his conduct; and it was to these two things that the Bible refers when it speaks of man being made in God's image. Of all things, therefore, that educators can possibly apply their minds to, the study of this education of the conscience is the highest, it is the most important—for true education the most indispensable. Of course the education of the conscience lies at the root of all religion. It is not possible really to accept a religion, except that religion is accepted by the conscience. It must be recognized by the spiritual faculty, or else it cannot be accepted as a religion. It may be accepted as a fact of nature; it may be that men believe in beings whom they cannot see, but whom they can fear; and yet, for all that, there may be no religion in this belief; there may be no appreciation of the supremacy of what is right over what is wrong, without which there is no such thing as religion. Now the faculty of the conscience is such as to make us liable very frequently to mistakes. There is a definite faculty, the purpose of which is to distinguish between right and wrong, between good and evil. It is a mistake very frequently made to suppose, therefore, this faculty is infallible. We have no other faculty to guide us in conduct, unless we descend to something lower, which we cannot recognize as the highest and the best, except by this faculty implanted in us by Nature; and consequently, at all times, if we are free agents, we are bound to follow the command of this faculty, and that leads us to suppose that the faculty

itself is infallible. Nevertheless, there can be no question, and a man can find a proof of it in himself, that it is a mistake to suppose that the faculty is infallible. The faculty, on the contrary, is like all other faculties of humanity—capable of education. It is sometimes in a stage when it really cannot discern between good and evil, except within the very narrowest range; and, nevertheless, it may be cultivated until it can discern between good and evil with sufficient surety and clearness to justify us, not only in following it, but to know that to follow it is the wide road towards giving to it its supreme authority with justice. The faculty, like other faculties, is capable of education; and here, in the passage, the writer of the Epistle to the Hebrews distinguishes between the babes and the matured and says that for the babes it is necessary 'to supply them with milk, but for those who are more matured strong meat is required. There is a power in one stage of conscience of appreciating right and wrong in a fuller, clearer sense than in another stage. Just as the understanding grows and is capable of development and cultivation, so, too, the conscience grows and is capable of the same kind of development, and, therefore, of the same kind of education; and this verse, which thus marks the need of conscience, shows to us also what is the character of the education that it is to receive. How is it to be educated? We are told here that it is to be educated exactly as any other faculty. What is it that educates any faculty? The answer is that any faculty you have to educate you can only educate by use. It is by using it, and only using it, that it gets its true cultivation, and the business of the teacher in all cases is to get the pupil to use his faculty, and to give him guidance how he is to use it. There is no teaching without that; there is no teaching

without persuading in some way the learner to put his faculty to use. No explanation will enable a boy to learn arithmetic, however careful and clear your explanation may be, unless he is set down to put all the explanation into practice, and the teaching of arithmetic more largely consists in the guidance of the practice than in any explanation that can possibly be given. It is the same with every other subject that we teach to the understanding of our scholars. There is always the same absolute rules that we must make the scholar exercise the faculty in dealing with the subject or we can teach them nothing. That, of course, is the reason why we can teach some a great deal more than we can others. In some the faculty is much more strong than in others. The progress of the lecturer does not simply depend upon the teacher; it depends still more upon the capacity of the learner. This is nothing more than a commonplace, but I am speaking of it here with a purpose to apply it presently to that which is my main subject—the education of the conscience. The education of the conscience, therefore, is to be governed precisely by the same rules by which we regulate all other kinds of education. There must be use, and the ordinary lives that we live will, of course, be constantly calling upon us for that use; the conscience is educated to a very great degree without the help of someone charged with the duty of educating it, simply by the ordinary conversation, the ordinary judgments, the ordinary conduct of mankind around us. We are taught by them constantly, and are, perhaps, taught more by them than by any teacher. But if there be, as is certainly the case, very much education of the conscience in ordinary life, still there can be no question that a very great difference is made, if the education of the conscience is entrusted to a teacher who

will make that power the object of all his teaching. The teacher will, of course, have to teach many things, for he has to cultivate, in some degree or other, all the faculties of the human soul. He will not confine himself—in fact, it would not be possible to do so—to the teaching of conscience alone; but, whilst he has other faculties to teach, this is the faculty which is admitted by all to be the best worth teaching—to be, in fact, the crown of all education, to precede everything else in importance. How are we, then, to put the conscience to use in this way? What is the ordinary practice in the teaching of everything else? In the teaching of other subjects, as a general rule, we find it a great help to have text-books which shall be used to impress the truth of whatever subject we are teaching upon the mind. For instance, we have grammars. We have text-books, generally consisting of examples more than anything else, for the teaching of arithmetic; and for that very reason our Heavenly Father has supplied us with a great text-book for the teaching of the conscience and all that appertains to the conscience, and that text-book is the Bible; but inasmuch as the Bible is, as it were, a treatise; for a text-book to perfect, to develop, and cultivate the conscience, we use extracts, creeds, and catechisms. When you teach the ten commandments you are teaching the important principles of morals which govern the ordinary conduct of human life. In all these we are supplied with text-books for the instruction of the conscience, just as we are supplied with text-books for the instruction of our pupils in any other subject. But remember, the use of the text-book is not enough; you have still got to make the pupil apply the text-book to his life, and you cannot educate his conscience in any other way. You are constantly to do your best to instruct him that

all this which he learns in any such text-book is of no value, except in as far he lives up to it. Persuade him to be constantly practicing that which should govern all his conduct—to practice the will of God, the love of his neighbor in all its various forms, and details, the great principles of truth, justice and purity, and to practice the noblest of all things that can characterize a man, self-sacrifice. What is it that is needed in order to persuade the pupil so to practice? The first thing needed is to awake his conscience to appreciate the beauty of these things and their excellence, and to desire them. And so it is that we set before children examples of great and good men. We set before them instances of noble and heroic conduct. We are sure that if not at once, yet in course of time, their consciences will appreciate those excellencies. We set before them the example of the Lord Jesus. We feel sure that they will be drawn to see what wonderful beauty and excellence there is in His life and character. We set all these before them to make them see what is beautiful in them. What is the great help which all learners need more than anything else in order that they may really appreciate the religious excellence? The answer always is, it must be in the life of the teacher himself. If he appreciates it, then he has a marvellous power to get his learners to appreciate it. There is a kind of infection in all learning from the teacher to the learner, whereby the learner is induced and drawn to follow the teacher. I have often had occasion to press upon all those whose duty it is to teach that there is one great part of teaching which is more important for the purpose of getting learners to learn than anything else. If you take an inexperienced man and ask him what is the most important thing in the teacher and in the charac-

ter of his teaching, he will very likely answer fulness and clearness of knowledge, and unless he has clear and full knowledge he cannot teach; he will do wrong, he will lead the learners to mistakes; but if he has real accurate knowledge and clearness of knowledge, then he can teach. These are, no doubt, indispensable for really good teaching; but they are not the most indispensable things; it is not these which really infect the learner with a desire to learn; it is not fulness, accuracy of knowledge, but freshness of knowledge—that kind of knowledge which comes, as it were, fresh from the teacher's mind, that is in him and living in him. How often have I heard a man teach, and yet make very little impression with his teaching, simply because his teaching was stale and had no living power in it! So with all the teaching that we ordinarily have to give. One of the most important things for every teacher to practice is the preparation of each separate lesson, in order that it may be fresh to those to whom he is to give it; that it may not be a mere recollection of something which was in his mind long ago; but that it may have in it the power of the conviction of the moment, that it is which gets the learners to learn. So it is in the highest of all subjects. If the man is living up to the highest moral principles, if he is living up to the dictates of the religion which has laid hold of his own conscience, that man will assuredly teach the conscience of those to whom he gives his lessons. To go a step further, there is always attendant upon all acceptance of what is true, and still more upon all acceptance of what is good and holy, moving, as it were, within it and behind it, the working of a totally different faculty which we commonly call the heart. There is a love of it, and this is the most extraordinary power of infecting the learner that a man will

have. If the man's heart be in his work as a teacher, if he longs to teach, if he has a real delight in the study, his pupils get from him something of the same delight ; and it applies more fully to the educating of the conscience than any other faculty that we possess. To love God's truth, to love holiness, purity, self-sacrifice, that it is which kindles in the learners a love of the same kind ; and they are thus led to appreciate what perhaps they would be slow to appreciate if they had only themselves to be their own instructors. So the work of the educator of the young rises to its climax, and requires of him that he shall in himself rise to the same height. He has to educate their conscience, and he must begin by educating his own. He has to educate their conscience by perpetual use, and he has to begin by perpetual application of the same rule to his own life. He has to use his conscience, reverencing it as his king, obeying its slightest hint, watching over his conduct to see that there shall be nothing which contradicts the great law which he has within himself ; he has to educate his appreciation of what is excellent by meditating and studying the lives of those that have lived excellent lives ; he has to cherish within his soul that sense of the beauty and the glory of the character of our Lord which makes him long for the prize of our high calling—the prize which consists

in resembling the Lord Himself. That is the true ideal which the educator has always to keep before his eyes. It is that which distinguishes great educators from those who take but a low view of what they have to do. Such men as Dr. Arnold, who made so marvellous a change in the whole character of the education of this country, are models to follow, because they certainly had this ideal before their eyes, lived up to it, lived, as it were, in it ; and they, whatever faults they may have had—and we all have grievous faults—impressed upon all those whom they had to teach the true beauty of what is holy, just and good—the true beauty of that self-sacrifice of which our Lord gave us so great an example—they impressed upon all those whom they taught, what is the real ideal of human life. As long as they are remembered—and long will they be remembered—their work shall still have its influence on mankind. They have done something to lift men to a higher level than that on which they stood before : they have done something in their day ; it is for us who are still charged with the duty of teaching to follow in the path in which they trod : at the end of that path is God Himself.

The sermon on the mount is the code of Christian life, the correspondent and fulfilment in the New Testament of the ten commandments in the Old.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

BY PRES. LEVI SEELEY,

State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

THE more educators come to recognize that there is a philosophy of education, the more profoundly convinced are they that there is something radically lacking in the American school system. Most

school systems of Europe have always recognized the necessity of religious instruction in the common schools, and, indeed, some of them have made such instruction the chief corner stone of their educational practice. On

this continent the province of Ontario provides an authorized set of scripture readings and forms of prayer to be used as a part of the school exercises, and allows the clergy of any denomination "to give religious instruction to the pupils of their own church, in the schoolhouse, at least once a week, after the hour of closing school in the afternoon." Conflict between the different denominations is avoided by the school board arranging hours for each. The Regulations of the Department of Education make the following wise recommendation: "Reverence, decorum, and earnestness should characterize every exercise. Besides merely reading the lesson for the day, choice verses might be written upon the blackboard and committed to memory by the pupils. Selected passages might be repeated in concert, and thus, while carefully avoiding any attempt at giving a sectarian bias to the instruction imparted, the truths of the Bible might be impressed upon the pupils as the safest guides for life and duty."*

Of course in the Old World, where the community is divided almost entirely on the lines of Catholic and Protestant, the problem is much simpler than with us, with our many denominations; but the situation in Ontario is much the same as that of the States.

There has been a disposition to abandon the problem as impossible of solution in this country, or, rather, to solve it either by wholly excluding the Bible from our schools, or by allowing simply the reading of portions of Scripture without comment. But this arrangement has not solved the question, nor does it satisfy anyone. The Catholics have always insisted that knowledge of God is an essential part of education; that the

heart, as well as the hand and the head, needs culture. They have not always been consistent in this respect in their attitude toward the public schools, especially when they have urged the exclusion of the Bible from the schools, and many of them now freely acknowledge the mistake. The increase in the number of parochial schools in our country is a protest not against the intellectual work of the public school, as no one will claim that anything is gained in this respect in the establishment of the parochial school; but against the lack of proper moral and religious training. The parochial school can never reach all of the Catholic children, and, even in communities where it exists, Catholic parents are not altogether satisfied with it. I think Archbishop Ireland voices the sentiment of Catholic parents when he says: "State action in favor of instruction implies free schools in which knowledge is conditioned in the asking; in no other manner can we bring instruction within the reach of all children. Free schools! Blest indeed is the nation whose vales and hillside they adorn, and blest the generations upon whose souls are poured their treasures!

"It were idle for me to praise the work of the State school of America in imparting secular instruction. We all confess its value. It is our pride and glory. The republic of the United States has solemnly affirmed its resolve that within its borders no clouds of ignorance shall settle upon the minds of the children of its people. To reach this result its generosity knows no limit. The free school of America—withered be the hand raised in sign of its destruction!

"Can I be suspected of enmity to the state school because I fain would widen the expanse of its wings until all the children of the people find shelter beneath their cover; because I tell of defects which, for very love

* Regulations regarding the reading of the Bible and prayer in the Public and High Schools, Province of Ontario.

of the State school, I seek to remedy?

"I turn to the parish school. It exists. I repeat my regret that there is the necessity for its existence. In behalf of the State school I call upon my fellow-Americans to aid in the removal of this necessity."*

But Catholics are not alone in the feeling of dissatisfaction with the present attitude of the schools to this question. A few years ago State legislatures vied with each other in placing upon the statute books laws regulating, if not entirely forbidding, all use of the Bible in the public schools. While many ministers and church people earnestly resisted such action, many others were content with the drift of public opinion, arguing that all denominations would be satisfied with such a solution. No one will claim that the anticipated result has been obtained. The Catholics go on building parish schools; the Lutherans, who also insist that religious instruction is essential, do the same, and a great many other Protestants feel that there is something wrong. Young people are deplorably irreverent and careless concerning the deeper things of life, to say nothing of the graver and more criminal tendencies. Then the dense ignorance of sacred history and the teachings of the Bible is simply appalling. And this ignorance is not found simply with the masses, but also among our best trained young men and women, as testified to by college presidents, day and Sunday school teachers, and even by superficial observers. Dr. Edward Everett Hale, in a recent address before the New England Associate Alliance, described a class of girls in a public school, nine out of ten of whom had never heard of Noah's Ark. In an entrance examination of

one of our colleges, in 1896, twenty-two extracts from Tennyson were selected in which Bible references were made. Such common expressions as "Manna in the Wilderness," "Lot's Wife," "Jacob's Ladder," "Jonah's Gourd," "Cain's Mark," etc., occurred. Thirty-four candidates were examined, and it was found that, out of a possible 748 correct answers, only 382, or less than fifty per cent., were given.

Feeling the importance of this question, and desiring to obtain data to show the drift of thought among the leaders of our land, I began an investigation of the subject some two years ago. I sent circulars to about four hundred persons in different parts of the United States. The circular is as follows:

THE STUDY OF RELIGION IN OUR COMMON SCHOOLS.

In order to obtain a consensus of opinion on this important subject, I send this circular to pastors, teachers, parents, and other thoughtful friends of the American public schools. The attempt will be made to reach representatives of all shades of belief, and it is understood that their communications are of a private character unless their permission to use their names be given. I submit the following questions and ask for as full answers as may be.

Should the result of this investigation warrant it, I propose to classify the answers obtained, with conclusions therefrom, and give them to the public.

QUESTIONS

1. Is religious education necessary to a properly developed character?
2. If so, are the American youth receiving such education?
3. Is the Church (including the Sunday school) accomplishing it?
4. Is the home accomplishing it?

*Address before the National Educational Association at St. Paul in 1890.

5. Or are these two agencies combined (or any other agency) accomplishing it?

6. Is religious education necessary to good citizenship?

7. If so, ought the State to provide it?

8. Under our peculiar institutions and conditions, how far should the State go? (a) Sacred history and literature? (b) Doctrine and creeds? (c) Church history? (d) Moral lessons from the Bible?

9. Do you distinguish moral and religious instruction?

10. What are the chief obstacles to the introduction of religious instruction into the public schools?

11. What are the objections that will be raised?

11. Would you favor its introduction under such limitations as you have above expressed (if any).

13. Are you willing that your answers to the above questions shall be made use of in connection with your name?

I received replies from about 250 persons, of whom 42 were clergymen, 20 college presidents, 30 college professors, 43 State and city school superintendents, 31 principals, 4 lawyers, 4 editors, and others from various ranks of life. As to religious confession. 37 were Methodists, 12 Baptists, 57 Presbyterians, 17 Congregationalists, 1 Reformed, 13 Friends, 6 Episcopalians, 3 Catholics, 1 Moravian, 4 Disciples, 3 Unitarians, 5 "Liberals," while quite a number did not give their church relation. In most cases I knew nothing of the religious preferences of those addressed. I sought for an expression from all classes of representative men and women of all shades of belief.

The most of those who replied recognized that an honest effort was being made to throw light upon a great and difficult problem, and therefore gave their cordial aid. I pro-

pose to give a summary of these answers, with such quotations as the limits of this article will admit.

Is religious education necessary to a properly developed character?

There were 196 answers in the affirmative, 1 in the negative, and 5 modified. In almost every instance the question was answered by a simple "yes." One writer adds: "Man is as certainly a religious as an intellectual or a physical being. True education must take into account the whole man." Professor O'Shea defines what he means by religious instruction as follows: "I cannot here, in the limits imposed upon me, adequately define what I mean by religious education; but I may say simply that there are certain fundamental religious truths in which humanity has always believed more or less fully, and a knowledge of these, it seems to me, is essential to a properly developed character. My own opinion is that, for our own time and people, instruction in those fundamental principles of the Christian religion in which all Christian denominations agree may be said to be necessary for the proper development of character in our youth."

The late Dr. E. A. Sheldon tersely answers: "Character is based on it." and Dr. G. Stanley Hall says; "Absolutely essential." Another writer says: "Religious education is certainly necessary to a properly developed character, but that does not mean instruction in the dogmas of theology." Professor Williams of Cornell writes: "I certainly think it is; not so much as a set of nominal beliefs, but as a settled habit of living, thinking and acting."

The next four questions, which are subordinate to the first, seek to discover if American youth are receiving such education through the Church, the Sunday school, the home or any other agency. There are 13

affirmative answers to No. 2, 6 to No. 3, 5 to No. 4, and 6 to No. 5. All the rest of the answers I have classified as "no," or "partially." Of these about two-thirds are negative and one-third, evidently having in mind the work done in the Church, the Sunday school, and the home, express the opinion that the work is partially done. For instance, Dr. John Hall says: The Church is doing her best in the Sunday school; but many children are not in it."

Some of the answers to these questions are very suggestive. Judge Fancher (New York) says: "Christian homes are accomplishing much; but in many other homes, especially in cities, there is little or no Christian education, or religious education of any kind."

President Canfield takes an optimistic view, in which he says the Church "Is doing its part—not always wisely or well, but better and better with passing years."

An opposite view is taken by Bishop Vincent: "The Church does not do its share, nor does the Sunday school. Home is not at its best. In many cases home is doing nothing."

Dr. McChesney (New York) says: "The youth of our country are receiving religious education only in an alarmingly limited manner."

Ex-Superintendent Zalmon Richards says: "The majority of our American youth do not receive the right kind of religious and moral education."

The opinion of President Pritchett of the Sam Houston Normal Institute (Texas) represents that of the majority. He says: "Parents are more and more turning over the education of their children to public schools and to Sunday schools, and I fear there is less and less home training."

It is conceded by all that it is the duty of the State to fit the child for

citizenship, and that, in a republic, the perpetuity of its institutions is dependent upon the goodness as well as the intelligence of the citizens.

The sixth question: "Is religious education necessary to good citizenship?" met with answers as follows: Affirmative, 156; negative, 11, modified, 26. The most of the answers were unqualified "yes." Some of the modified answers are practically affirmative, as will appear. I quote a few:

"Not to good citizenship, but to the highest type of citizenship."—Ray Greene Huling.

"Yes, I think so: it is certainly desirable."—President Draper.

"It is. The safety of the republic depends on *individual character*."—Dr. Cuyler.

"In the broadest sense of 'citizenship,' yes."—Nicholas Murray Butler.

"Yes, if of the right character—I mean if it is really *religious* and not merely theological."—Superintendent Balliet.

"Of course religious education is necessary to good citizenship, and whatever will promote religious character should be encouraged."—Bishop Vincent.

"Unquestionably. All history proves that."—General Rusling (Trenton).

"Yes. Good citizenship is impossible without a properly developed character. Good citizenship does more than respect civil law; it obeys the moral law, which touches upon points that can never be reached by civil law. Religious education is essential to good citizenship in the same degree that it is essential to a properly developed character."—Professor O'Shea.

"Not necessary, but highly important. Citizenship being in large part a business affair, a man of poor character may prove a good citizen. But

it is better to have a man of the best type."—Professor Royce.

I have quoted so many opinions in order to show the various shades of view among thinking men.

The answers to No. 7 are even more interesting. The question is, "If so, ought the State to provide it?" Affirmative, 85; negative, 64; modified, 40. It was a matter of considerable surprise to me, in tabulating the answers, to find that so large a number have come to the belief that the State ought to assume some responsibility in the work of religious education. I expected a large preponderance of opinion in favor of the State's keeping "hands off," as a Catholic priest puts it. Another thing is apparent in the answers, and that is, of those favoring such education, the larger part comes from the ranks of teachers and professors. Clergymen quite generally seem to be jealous of State interference, and this applies to Protestants as well as Catholics. I account for this from the fact that teachers have studied the problem more thoroughly than clergymen, and, also, that the former come into closer contact with the youth than the latter, and, therefore, are better acquainted with the defects in their education. It is exceedingly gratifying that the most thoughtful men of our land are coming to recognize the logic of the situation as to the State's duty, and are seeking a wise and suitable adjustment of the problem. I shall take the liberty to cite the opinions of quite a number of my correspondents upon this seventh question.

Dr. Pritchett answers this question as follows: "Yes, if possible. In the German Gymnasia much time is given to the study of what is called religion. Whether it is of value, I am unable to say. If, in America, the conditions recorded in answer to 3 and 4 obtain, and our children are

generally taught in public schools, it may become necessary to provide for something of this kind."

I may remark, in passing, that many of the teachers of religion in the German Gymnasia are students who have completed a course in theology, and who, not being sufficiently orthodox to gain admission to a pastorate, are allowed to enter the field of teaching, and, indeed, to teach religion! Professor Paulsen vigorously protests against this practice, "For," says he, "if their faith is too unsound for the pulpit, how much more dangerous must it be for these men to instruct the youth in doctrines." I believe that this partially explains the acknowledged lack of good results of religious instruction in the higher institutions of learning in Germany—a lack which certainly is not found in her common schools, where the teachers are devoted men.

Dr. McChesney says: "Among the foundation principles of government in this country is that of religious liberty, and the separation of Church and State. And yet, to argue from this, as some do, that the State should take no part in religious instruction, is to force these principles to an extreme and unreasonable application. While tolerant of all religions that do not conflict with public morality, the general attitude of government in this country has been, and still is, that of adherence to the religion of the Bible—the Christian religion.

"It is not 'American' but un-American to say that the state shall provide only secular education. The State must protect itself."

Mrs. Peavey lays great stress upon the life and character of the teacher. "Let the teacher always exalt the dignity of conscience. Teach the boys and girls to be true to themselves, to be honest in themselves, and in due time, the moral life will be

touched with emotion, and genuine religion will control their lives. The public schools must do this work or there will be an utter failure in our national life."

A Catholic view is tersely put by Father Kivelitz. "By no means; for not the State but the Church has been commissioned by God to teach His word."

I add a few opinions, given in a word:

"Yes, this would be ideal, although I cannot see how it can be easily accomplished at present."—Professor O'Shea.

"Ethically, yes; denominationally, no."—President Stryker.

"Yes—the central cardinal features of it."—Dr. Cuyler.

"Under our principles and system of government it seems impracticable, so long as denominations are so antagonistic."—President Draper.

"The State should protect it, but not enforce it. The most it can do is to authorize the reading of the Bible in the schools."—Judge Fancher.

"I have no confidence in the proposition to clothe the State with authority to teach religion. Such teaching, for the most part, must necessarily be formal and official, lacking the most vital elements of efficacious instruction."—Prof. Hinsdale

"The State ought so to arrange that it should be given; not at the State's cost, necessarily."—Dr. J. Hall

"I think so."—Ex-Pres. Magill.

The most of the answers thus quoted I have classed as "modified," though some in the affirmative and some in the negative are quoted to show the positive view of the individual quoted. The most of those included in the 85 affirmatives and the 64 negatives answered by a simple "yes" "no." In some cases the quotations given ought to be taken in connection with the answers of the authors to preceding questions; but I have endeavored to avoid quoting

such answers as, standing alone, would misrepresent the spirit and intent of the author.

Space does not permit quotations from answers to the remaining questions. I can only give an analysis of the result. Ninety would give sacred history and literature, 7 would teach doctrines and creeds, 45 would teach Church history, 120 would have instruction in moral lessons from the Bible, 11 would teach all of the above, and 30 would teach none of them. It will be seen that the majority think that it is safe to teach sacred history and literature, and moral lessons from the Bible, and that only a few would admit anything else. Of course, most of those favoring sacred history and literature are found in the column favoring moral lessons from the Bible.

In answer to question 9, 142 distinguish moral from religious instruction and 40 make no distinction.

The large proportion believe, in answer to questions 10 and 11, that the chief obstacle to the introduction of religious instruction is sectarianism, narrowness, bigotry, or superstition. "Poor teachers" is offered as an objection by quite a number, and also that Church and State are separate in this country.

One hundred and twenty-four would favor a trial under certain limitations, 46 would not give it a trial, and 12 pronounce its introduction an impossibility. Some, who believe in religious instruction as a theory, positively and emphatically oppose any attempt to work out the problem; it being beyond solution in our country.

All but thirteen of my correspondents permit the use of their names.

It must be remarked that answers to categorical questions do not admit of a full statement of one's belief; but some have availed themselves of the opportunity to answer more fully, as the quotations given prove.

(*To be continued.*)

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

AS A MEANS OF SOCIAL CONTROL.

BY PROF. EARL BARNES, LONDON, ENG.

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NO American can live in England, even for a few months, without realizing that the whole theory and practice of human control is very different from what it is with us. If from England the visitor goes on to France the marked characteristics of English control are still more emphasized.

The English are a strong people—their present empire is a sufficient proof of this statement. They are frankly, directly masterful; and this masterful quality is most simply expressed in their attitude toward corporal punishment. Everywhere one is brought face to face with the national dependence on physical pain and discomfort as a means of correcting evil ways. Thus, in the *London Daily Telegraph* of Sept. 3, 1897, one reads that Henry Bunce, aged 13, was charged at a London police court, with stealing a water-can, value 2s. 6d. "Prisoner said he certainly broke into the house by forcing the back window catch, but all he did to the house was to wind the clocks. (Laughter.) Prisoner had been previously convicted, receiving six strokes with the birch for stealing. He now pleaded guilty, and Mr. Bird reduced the charge to one of stealing, and ordered him twelve strokes with the birch." Again, from the *Telegraph* of September 21: "Walter Tucker, 9, school-boy, was charged with stealing a pair of tennis shoes. Prisoner was sentenced to receive eight strokes with the birch."

One reads such statements in all the papers; nor are the birchings

confined to children in the police courts. Flogging was abolished in the United States navy half a century ago; but in the same *London Telegraph* for September 21, we read that, "A court martial was held yesterday on board the flagship *Victory*—for the trial of James Watkins—charged with being absent without leave—and with having struck his superior officer. Prisoner was sentenced to receive twenty-four cuts with the birch, then to be imprisoned for one year, and afterwards to be dismissed from her Majesty's service."

One does not need to go to the newspapers to realize this constant dependence of the English people on immediate physical reaction. One cannot walk ten blocks in London without being impressed with this pushing and pulling tendency of the common people; and if his walk take him through one of the tenement districts he feels that the parents have never heard of any treatment for children except that prescribed by Solomon. One might say this is because London is a great city, but the traveler may walk about Paris for a week and never see a child struck or kicked.

Nor is this confidence in physical reactions confined to the lower classes of society. The informing spirit of the British empire has never been more strongly expressed than in Rudyard Kipling's *Songs of the Seven Seas*, and these poems are instinct with the masterful spirit that finds its expression in immediate physical compulsion. Take, for instance, his

wonderful description of the making of the English soldier. *The 'Eathen* is a masterpiece of pedagogical writing. By a clean-cut, well-understood method the hoodlum is transformed into a color-sergeant and a hero ; and the method may be explained in one phrase—by physical force.

" The young recruit is 'aughty—'e drof's from Gawd knows where ;
They bid 'im show 'is stockin's an' lay 'is mattress square ;
'E calls it bloomin' nonsense—'e doesn't know no more—
An' then up comes 'is company an' kicks 'im round the floor !

The young recruit is silly—'e thinks o' suicide ;
'E's lost 'is gutter-devil ; 'e 'asn't got 'is pride ;
But day by day they kicks 'im, which 'elps 'im on a bit,
Till 'he finds 'isself one mornin' with a pan' full roper kit."

Gradually "'e learns to sweat 'is temper an' 'e learns to know 'is man," till as color-sergeant he trains his own men and leads them into the engagement :

" E's just as sick as they are, 'is 'eart is like to split.
But 'e works 'em, works 'em, works 'em till 'e feels 'em take the bit ;
The rest is 'oldin' steady till the watchful bugles play,
An' 'e lifts 'em, lifts 'em, lifts 'em, through the charge that wins the day."

In the later poem, *Pharaoh and the Sergeant*, Kipling tells how the same method has made the new Egypt ; and surely no more wonderful transformation of an oppressed and ruined country has ever taken place than that of Egypt under English rule :

" Said England unto Pharaoh, ' I must make a man of you
That would stand upon his feet and play the game ;
That will Maxim his oppressors as a Christian ought to do.'

And she sent old Pharaoh Sergeant Whatisname.

It was neither Hindustani, French, nor Coptic ;
It was odds and ends and leavings of the same,
Translated by a stick (which is really half the trick),
And Pharaoh hearked to Sergeant Whatisname.

Down the desert, down the railway down the river,
Like the Israelites from bondage so he came,
'Tween the clouds o' dust and fire to the land of his desire,
And his Moses it was Sergeant Whatisname !—

But he did it on the cheap and on the quiet,
And he's not allowed to forward any claim—
Though he drilled a black man white, though he made a mummy fight,
He will still continue Sergeant Whatisname—
Private, Corporal, Color-Sergeant, and Instructor—
But the everlasting miracle's the same.

In his last novel, *Captains Courageous*, Mr. Kipling has again summed up and expressed the whole English philosophy of control. The hero is Harvey Cheyne, the spoiled son of an American millionaire. We first meet him on an Atlantic liner on his way to " be finished in Europe." At this time he is " a slight, slim-built boy, a half-smoked cigarette hanging from the corner of his mouth. His pasty, yellow complexion did not show well on a person of his years, and his look was a mixture of irresolution, bravado, and very cheap smartness." On the way he falls, overboard and is picked up by a boat belonging to the schooner *We're Here*, of Gloucester, out on a four month's cruise. He demands to be taken home but the captain does not believe his story and he has to remain. He is offered regular employment but he

refuses it and so he suffers forcible indoctrination in seamanship, his first lesson taking the form of a knock-down blow, instantly productive of one of "them hemmeridges" that are warranted to clear the head.

In this spirit his instruction is inflexibly continued. Teachings and admonitions are alike convincingly emphasized by severe but dispassionate thrashings with a knotted rope, and Harvey soon discovers that it is his immediate personal interest to apply himself cheerfully to the performance of whatever duties may be assigned him by his master. "The same smartness that led him to take such advantage of his mother made him very sure that no one on the boat would stand the least nonsense." The thoroughgoing reformation of his character dates from the moment when this conviction becomes implanted in his mind. When restored to his parents at the close of the cruise, Harvey Cheyne is a frank, resolute, even-tempered youth, inured to hardships, trained to obedience, and proud of his ability to earn his own living.

This form of control is reduced to a working system and dignified by tradition and noble associations in the great public schools of Eton, Harrow, and Rugby. Thomas Arnold counted on the "fagging system" of Rugby as the key-stone of his whole government." When a liberal journal made an attack on corporal punishment, he replied: "I know well of what feeling this is the expression; it originates in that proud spirit of personal independence, which is neither reasonable nor Christian—but essentially barbarian. It visited Europe with all the evils of chivalry, and is threatening us now with those of Jacobinism. At an age when it is almost impossible to find a true, manly sense of the degradation of guilt or faults, where is the wisdom of encouraging a

fantastic sense of the degradation of personal correction? What can be more false, or more adverse to the simplicity, sobriety and humbleness of mind, which are the best ornament of youth, and the best promise of a noble manhood?"

When corporal punishment is common, and grounded in a generally accepted philosophy of control it does not carry with it that disgrace which attaches to it where any form of physical assault is considered as not only painful but as personally insulting. Hence we find that in England this form of control is not lacking in elements that may appeal to taste and be used to give brightness and color to literature and art. *Tom Brown at Rugby* will occur to every one; and in Kenneth Graham's *Golden Age* we have a charming treatment of the physical give-and-take solution of human relations in a well-to-do English home. Or take the review in a current English paper where Mr. G. W. Stevens quotes Elizabeth Turner's child's lyric:

"Mama had ordered Ann, the maid,
Miss Caroline to wash;
And put on with her clean, white frock
A handsome muslin sash.

But Caroline began to cry,
For what you cannot think:
She said, 'Oh, that's an ugly sash:
I'll have my pretty pink."

Papa, who in the parlor heard
Her make the noise and rout,
That instant went to Caroline,
To whip her, there's no doubt!"

And then Mr. Stevens adds the commentary: "When Caroline reappears in the story, naughty, you notice that she is 'Miss' Caroline no longer. In the second line of the second stanza we have the unheard-of-heinousness of her conduct finely emphasized. And then, in the third, the awful suddenness of the appari-

tion of papa ! How subtly papa is pictured, lying in wait in the parlor, silent, no doubt, listening, the door ajar, for the least hint of whipable naughtiness. That instant, you observe, he was up and at her. Note, finally, the art with which the catastrophe is suggested rather than stated. Papa is moving in the direction of Caroline ; we do not hear the slaps or the screams—but we imagine."

The attitude toward physical compulsion is not an unconscious accompaniment of environment and racial qualities ; it is, instead the accepted philosophy of the people, and they look with distrust and apprehension upon any people holding a different view. The attitude of English writers toward the French in matters of government, art, literature and social relations, from the impassioned utterances of the days of the French Revolution to the current articles in to-day's *Chronicle* or *Telegraph* all express this distrust of activity that is carried on outside the shadow of the strong arm of a law that can be distinctly seen and felt, if necessary. Or the current editorials, on our recent elections illustrate the point as well. To read them one would imagine that America, light, fickle, with no fixed policy, and no visible power of compulsion, was on the brink of anarchy. England's attitude toward us is very much like our attitude toward Brazil or Guatemala.

Now this attitude toward law, with its accompaniment of possible pain, has been characteristic of the great conquering nations of all time. All that has been said of England would have been even more true of ancient Rome ; and wherever a great work is accomplished through a long period of time we cannot doubt that the agent is working in harmony with the constitution of things. Capital punishment then, using the phrase with its largest content, would seem to

have its place and function. What is it?

The studies made on children's attitude toward punishment during these past four or five years go to show that young children accept physical reactions as a perfectly natural thing against which they feel no particular revolt. Their own tendency is to impose physical pain as a means of bringing things or people into line with what they think ought to be done. Farther, all our studies on undisciplined and spoiled children go to show that a young child finds at first the conditions of sound mental and moral growth only in absolute obedience to a will and a direction superior to his own. But from the earliest age the child is also struggling for self-direction and if he is prevented from following this natural development we have as a result either the helpless and dependent human being, or the revolutionist with his hand turned against all law. So with a primitive people, all history teaches that they find their best conditions of growth in strong, paternal rule, backed by immediate physical pain. An unprejudiced observer cannot be brought into immediate relations with the lower classes of our negro population without feeling that any one of them would find his best conditions for mental and moral growth in a state of immediate dependence on a wise and sympathetic superior. If a child or a primitive people misses this normal stage in its growth we have the hoodlums of our American cities, or the lower type of citizens in our Spanish-American republics. In these cases we must apply the rule, Better late than never. Spoiled people may find their salvation, even late in life, in a strong hand backed by immediate and painful penalties.

These, then, are cases where direct physical rule seems desirable ; with young children ; with primitive

peoples ; and with certain types of spoiled people. It will be noted that these are exactly the cases with which Mr. Kipling deals, the neglected and spoiled son of a New York millionaire, the English "gutter-devil" and the Egyptian fellaheen, with his centuries of oppression and misuse behind him, and in him. But the trouble comes when we take it for granted that this is the whole secret and science of government. It seems to me that this mistake marks the whole attitude of the English people toward control. All sane and healthy living must certainly start in absolute and willing obedience to some superior human power ; without this start, no sound growth. But it is equally true that from the first each individual must not only be allowed, but encouraged to struggle for and to attain self-direction,—that is to say, a direction that is in accord with the constitution of the universe, his own nature and human society being two elements of that universe. Absolute control, backed by prompt physical penalties will give the foundations for healthy growth ; it will form a great army ; it will conquer and govern provinces ; it will at least hold in subjection the criminal and spoiled classes, and it will sometimes cure them. But if it is too long continued it will destroy initiative, crush out artistic development and ultimately brutalize a people. These conditions have not yet been realized in England, but the national tendency seems to me in that direction.

Meantime the new movement that is centering about the free common schools seems destined to work a great change in English public opinion. In the past England has never believed in the free general education of her people. Not till 1870 did she establish schools under the direction and control of government ; and not until 1892 did she make ele-

mentary education free. With the expansion of the suffrage, however, all parts of the country, and especially the great municipalities, have made rapidly increasing grants for the support of elementary education ; and just now all England is facing the problem of free secondary education. The influence of the free schools is already seen in an attempt on the part of the lower classes of society to realize existence as individuals as well as parts of society. These first attempts at self-direction and expression will be rude and often vulgar, but an American must believe that in the long run they will justify themselves.

When we turn to America the conditions are all very different. The free life of our early settlers developed an extreme confidence in self-direction ; our revolutionary struggle with England strengthened this confidence into a conviction which is formulated in our Declaration of Independence. With plenty of room for growth we passed the period of swaggering young manhood, from 1800 to 1840, without having our self-confidence properly tempered by a large and cosmopolitan experience. Then came the anti-slavery agitation with its vehement denunciations of the whip and personal degradation, and its soul-stirring orations on our black brother and human equality. Whatever ideas of direct control and compulsory obedience might have survived these national experiences have been still further obscured by the varied immigration with which our country has been flooded since 1840. The German has had no respect for the Irishman's ideas of public control, and the Irishman has rejected the German's traditions. As a consequence of our development we have accepted as the basis of control in the family and school, and even in our relations with our Indians and negroes

a variety of doctrinaire belief often better fitted to the society that we hope will exist in 2098 than to the society that actually exists in 1898.

Thus it has come about that the difference between the social faiths of England and America is profound. With us the individual is the centre of the universe ; we believe in him ; we trust him ; and this trust rests in a deeper optimism, in a belief in the essential rightness and sanity of the universe. To slightly change Lincoln's saying :—" We believe that some of the people will go wrong all of the time, and all of the people will go wrong sometimes,—but all of 'he people cannot go wrong all of the time." This belief must inevitably produce a state of unstable equilibrium among the molecules of our commonwealth ; and the Englishman watching us grows giddy, for he has not in the bottom of his heart that profound faith in the rightness of human nature in which the American rests.

But in this general optimism have we not carried our theories of physical inviolability so far that it has unfitted

us for dealing intelligently with backward people and diseased classes? Our lowest class of negroes, our lazy and habitual tramps, and our city hoodlums are the hardest problem we have to meet. We have a lot of work in our country that could be very effectively done by Sergeant Whatisname. Our children especially suffer from this lack of discrimination on our part. Freedom that comes too soon, before the individual is ready for it, is ruin ; and we in America have to learn when, in the advance from savagery to civilization, from childhood to manhood, the admonitions of experience need the backing of physical force.

If England's danger lies in the direction of a force that may weaken artistic power, destroy initiative and ultimately brutalize a people, ours lies in the direction of a lawless individualism that precociously ripens children, develops hoodlums, and leaves us powerless to deal with the infinitely difficult social and political problems of the undeveloped peoples within and all about our borders.—*Education.*

EXAMINATIONS.

REV. CANON EVAN DANIEL, M.A., COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS.

THE College of Preceptors is at once an examining body and a teaching body. It examines both pupils and teachers, and it would be very difficult to determine which of these two departments of education is the more important. I know that there are people who think that we are over-examined, and I have heard people speak very contemptuously of the value of examinations. I have heard them say, for instance, that it is foolish to take up a plant by the root to see how it is growing. I think you will agree with me that important

educational questions of that kind are not to be settled by a metaphor. Education requires examination. I know that examinations may be abused, that they may be too frequent, they may be too severe, and they may impose upon the pupils needless worry and nervous strain. But I think teachers will agree with me in saying that, if pupils were not examined by other people, it would be necessary for them to examine themselves ; that, in fact, it is absolutely necessary to take up the plant of knowledge by the root again and again, in order that it

shall grow. I am afraid that all the knowledge which we so industriously acquire would very soon pass away if it were not constantly revived in consciousness and used in new combinations. An examination is useful as a goal both for teachers and pupils. It gives them something definite to work for; it is a great stimulus to industry, and to healthy emulation between school and school; it detects the weak places in a school, and that, I think, is very valuable for the purpose of guiding both the teachers and the pupils. I also think it is of very great value to parents; it prevents them from living in a fool's paradise with regard to the efficiency of the school where their children are educated.

Now what are the conditions of a good examination? First of all, the area of subjects should not be too great, the questions should not be too difficult, and should be of a varied character; there should be questions, for instance, appealing to memory, and there should be questions appealing to the higher intellectual faculties. In other words, there should be questions based on book work, and there should be questions calling for some independent exercise of the intellectual powers. The questions should always be unambiguous; there should be no doubt whatever as to their meaning. There should be a high standard of excellence, there should be justice and accuracy in the appraising of the marks; and last, but not least, there should be rapidity in getting out the results of the examination.

I said that the College undertakes to teach as well as to examine. It does not teach pupils in the ordinary sense of the word, but it does teach teachers. Every month some useful paper on educational subjects is read before the teachers who meet in this room, and a useful discussion follows.

I have attended many of these meetings, and I can bear my personal testimony as to their great interest and practical character. Then, again, the College has established a College for the Training of Teachers, and, although it is early days to judge of its success, I feel certain, if we will only wait and work on, there is a great, and, I would venture to say, a glorious, future before that College.

It may be in your recollection that a few weeks ago Professor Mahaffy, who was presiding on a similar occasion to the present, indulged in some pessimistic remarks on the value of secondary education. Many persons who read his remarks thought that he spoke depreciatingly of education generally. I did not understand him in that sense at all. What he complained of was that the enormous efforts that have been made to improve education during the last thirty years have not been productive of the good results that might have been anticipated. Well, I am afraid there is too much truth in what the Professor said. We have attempted perhaps too much. We have included in our curriculum too many subjects. We have been too much swayed, I think, by vulgar utilitarian objects. We have laid too little stress upon moral and religious education. What was the principle of the old curriculum which maintained its ground for so many centuries in this country? It was *non multa sed multum*. The value of almost any subject you can teach depends on the extent to which you carry it. Both as mere knowledge and as an instrument for intellectual discipline, it is the higher planes to which the subject is carried that are productive of most good; one or two subjects studied to their highest reaches will do infinitely more good than a vast number of subjects of which the pupils obtain only a mere smattering. What is the principle of

the new curriculum ? It is a principle which is very old in one sense, but very new in its application in another. One of the ancient sages said : " Teach a child what the man will require." Now that sounds a very plausible principle to go upon, but it is utterly fallacious. There are certain limits imposed upon what we teach which prevent the principle from being carried out. There are the limits of nature, the limits of mental energy, and there are limits of time—the duration of school life. You cannot teach what you like, you can only teach what a child is capable of learning ; and you cannot teach in any order. The order is laid down for you by two things : first of all, the interdependence of the various departments of knowledge ; and, in the next place, the order in which the human faculties develop. You cannot get behind these inexorable limits, and your curriculum, whatever it may be, must be regulated accordingly. What has been the cause of the great change from one principle to another ? I think it is the growing preception of the value of science. We have all of us been thrown into a state of alarm about foreign competition with home trade and home manufactures. We have learnt that science lies at the bottom of all manufacturing processes, and that we cannot keep our place in the manufacturing world unless we teach science more widely and more profoundly. But you cannot teach science successfully unless you have a sound basis of general education to build upon. Then again we have been too much influenced by the clamours of ignorant parents. When I speak of them as ignorant, I am not using the word in an offensive sense at all ; they are ignorant because they cannot help it ; they are conscious of what they want, in a vague, hazy sort of way, but they know nothing of the means by which the ends are to be

attained, and, consequently, they sometimes ask for impossible results, and lay undue stress on what they consider to be knowledge of practical value. I heard a head-teacher say the other day that the parent had become so practical in many cases that the only subjects he really cared about were type-writing, book-keeping, and shorthand. I do not wish to depreciate those subjects. They are very valuable and important ; but I think you will all agree that they scarcely represent the whole of the humanities, and certainly do not embrace the whole circle of the sciences.

I remember reading some remarks of Hæckel upon the enormous value which the students who came to his classes derived from the higher culture to which they had been subjected. He had students whose education had been exclusively carried on in technical schools ; he had other students who had received a more liberal and classical education ; but he found this—and I would ask you to consider well the importance of his remarks—he found that the students in science who were capable of the higher work of his classes, those who were readiest to enter on wide generalizations, those whose reasoning faculties and judgment could be most depended on, were the students who had received a wide, liberal, and classical education.

Prizes are given, it has been said, for the benefit of those who do not get them. Well, that is true. They are intended as a stimulus to those who perhaps have not sufficient energy of their own to work without some adventitious stimulus to work ; but they are also given as a reward for good and honest work, and I must congratulate the recipients of the prizes that have been awarded upon the results of the Midsummer Examination, because they are a reward not merely of natural ability, nor of physi-

cal health—a very important matter in all industrial contests—nor of home advantages, nor of school advantages even; they are the reward of effort of sustained, long continued effort. There is a large moral element, therefore, in the means by which these prizes and rewards have been won, and it is that moral element I must congratulate you upon, because it affords the promise of future success in other fields of effort. I would say do not rest upon your oars, as successful candidates are sometimes tempted to do. I was for many years at the head of a college. I think about two thousand students passed through it during the time I was principal, and we sometimes noticed that the students who were highest coming in were amongst the lowest going out. It would be a very sorry result indeed if

these early, and what I may call premature, successes deluded you into the belief that you may now rest on your oars, and abandon the means by which your successes have been achieved.

Look upon your success in the right light, and I think it will be an encouragement to you to go on employing the same means by which your success has up to this point been secured. Remember that the secret of future success at school is the secret of your successes at college, and in the world. Success depends, I think, in the long run upon such simple matters as industry, concentration, self-control, and thoroughness. Even with inferior natural abilities great results may be achieved if you will simply do the work of the day, and do it honestly and industriously.—*Educational Times, London.*

SAY NOT THE STRUGGLE NAUGHT AVAILETH.

Say not, the struggle naught availeth,
The labor and the wounds are vain,
The enemy faints not, nor faileth,
And as things have been they remain.

If hopes were dupes, fears may be liars ;
It may be, in yon smoke concealed,
Your comrades chase e'en now the fiers,
And, but for you, possess the field.

For while the tired waves, vainly break-
ing,

Seem here no painful inch to gain,
Far back, through creeks and inlets
making,
Comes silent, flooding in the main.

And not by eastern windows only,
When daylight comes, comes in the
light;
In front, the sun climbs slow, how slowly,
But westward, look, the land is bright.

—From "Poems," by Arthur Hugh Clough.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Deliver not the tasks of might
To weakness, neither hide the ray
From those, not blind, who wait for
day,
Tho' sitting girt with doubtful light.

"That from Discussion's lips may fall
With Life, that, working strongly
binds—
Set in all lights by many minds,
So close the interests of all."

WE have drawn the attention of our readers on several occasions to the material which is being collected by various societies of educationists on the subject of Child Study; and no harm can come to the provinces wherein the examination still holds supreme sway should the nature

and mental functions of the child be more carefully examined than they are, if for no other purpose than to keep the examination in its legitimate place. The necessity of the examination seems to be an accepted axiom in every system of public instruction, though everybody is beginning to suspect that it has come to be more of a state espionage on the work of the school than an incentive to produce the best results. The more the knowledge acquired by the average pupil the more efficient the system, has, however, come to be recognized as a fallacy, and the sooner our school systems in Canada come to steer a course away from this fallacy the better will it be for pupil and teacher. And this is, no doubt, the reason why many of our teachers have taken such a lively interest in the subject of Child Study, since, with the nature of the child better understood, more beneficial methods may finally come to be introduced in our schools for the development of that nature than the methods adapted in preparing a child for an annual examination demanded and supervised by government officials, whose estimate of educational gain or loss, of efficiency or inefficiency, is to be found afterwards recorded in some statistician's cold-blooded report. There is always a danger, however, in making too much of a good thing, and the enthusiasts who have entered upon "the new campaign" will possibly find ballast to the ultra-buoyancy of their expectancies in the words of the Rev. Dr. A. D. Mayo, who has undertaken to point out in his common-sense view the Perils of Child Study.

Dr. Mayo's words are worth quoting *in extenso*, and we give a paragraph to each of the heads under which he groups his thoughts on this subject. First of all, as he says, the peril of the very common conceit that

a newly awakened interest in an important subject implies an important departure in its investigation by the investigator. From the days when Grandmother Eve put all her brain and heart into the study of her first bad and good boy, to the mother of the latest born baby, no theme has challenged such extended and profound study as childhood. The child is the focus of the most intense, profound and universal observation, always and everywhere. First, by the mother; who, like Mary, "keeps all these sayings in her heart;" then in turn by every member of the household, from the children up to the grandfather; by all the family relatives and the entire circle of the family acquaintances; by every teacher and pupil, from the kindergarten through the university; by the community of which it is a member, all the way up from the cradle to the ballot box and the "coming out," the humblest child is surrounded by a "great cloud of witnesses" who study it from every point of view. The result is that every generation of parents and teachers, society itself, is able to take some forward step in the training of childhood and youth, and the world goes on a little better every century, because the world knows more of the children. To assert, as some of the more enthusiastic disciples of recent methods of observing children sometimes do, that Child Study, as a science, dates from certain recent devices in obtaining results that can be tabulated in statistics, is certainly to ignore or not to be aware of the fact that the child always has been, is now, and always will be the most interesting object of human investigation.

Dr. Mayo, under his second heading, points out the peril of seeking

important information concerning the child in the wrong direction. The most valuable facts concerning a child, to any original observer, are the results of personal observation and prolonged experiences, prompted by "unfeigned love" for children, mental honesty, and a modest estimate of results. Next in value is what can be gained by an extended and careful consideration of the knowledge and experience lodged in the minds and hearts of the best parents, teachers, and all persons intimately acquainted and deeply interested in children. But here the investigation proceeds under great difficulties. To separate the truth in the statement of the fond mother or doting teacher, from the obscurity cast around every little one by parental pride, vanity, ambition, and the great difficulty of expressing in words the most elusive and critical facts in the case, requires more than the skill of the trained advocate, even a supreme faculty of intuition, working in the atmosphere of a truthful mind, a loving heart, and a soul impressed and brooded over with the sanctity of our human nature in its relation to the Divine.

As a third item, this careful investigator of a true pedagogic emphasizes the peril of beginning at the wrong end in gathering the materials for a true scientific study of children. The value of any scientific study depends largely on the quantity and quality of the materials to which it is directed. It is not disputed that the child, as a physical being, with all that is implied therein, is a most interesting subject of investigation. But the child is, beyond all else, "a living soul;" the child of God and man, endowed with a spiritual, moral and mental being; an immortal traveller through the eternities; at this stage of his journey using the body as a convenient

vehicle of transportation. To call the study of a child from his skin inwards "scientific," and from the soul outwards "sentimental," is to blaspheme science itself. The fundamental law of the science of man is: "spiritual things are spiritually discerned."

In his fourth word of warning, Dr. Mayo draws our attention to the peril of exaggerating the importance of information obtained by the list of questions periodically fired off, like charges of pedagogic bird shot from heavy educational ordnance, into a crowd of children. In the first place, this investigation loses half the value, from passing out of the hands of the investigator, into the charge of numbers of persons of whom he can know little or nothing concerning their fitness for delicate and laborious work. If President Hall himself, by personal observation and familiar acquaintance, could give six months to the questioning of 3,000 children concerning their hopes and fears, the books they like best, the things they prefer to do, and the men and women they would like to be, we might have confidence in the conclusions to which an observer so enthusiastic and accurate would arrive. But how many of the teachers in any city have any such special fitness to conduct this examination? What do we know concerning the reliability, truthfulness, honesty, capacity for accurate expression, or even any considerable knowledge of their own general likes or dislikes, of any 3,000 children thus faced with a challenge to tell the whole world about themselves? How many of them are simply answering according to a child's mood, with no real thought of what they say and only the most superficial knowledge of their own genuine likes and dislikes? And how many are simply "guying" the teacher in their answers? To present elaborate tables, constructed in this way, as

furnishing reliable data, for scientific investigation in the most mysterious, secretive and sacred realm of life, the realm of childhood, is an offence to science itself and a caricature of any genuine method of Child Study.

And, finally, he points out the peril of changing our public schools to a grand experiment station, open to every curious inquirer who in the name of "science" proceeds ruthlessly to pull up these flowers in our garden of delight by the roots and ransack with a searchlight the twilight domain which Nature and Providence have wisely shrouded in obscurity. Has the child, at school, no rights that the expert in pedagogy is bound to respect? The American people do not send their children to the public school to be catechized, by the thousand, by any university professor of biology or doctor of theology concerning their infantile notions of the most sacred belief in religion; or even their personal tastes, likes and dislikes. A wise and consecrated teacher guards her own knowledge of the little ones as sacredly as the father confessor the revelations of the confessional. We look upon such an operation as a recent publication of the religious notions of several thousand children and the deductions therefrom in one of our American states as a public outrage; to say nothing of the absurdity of formulating any valuable conclusions on the religious aspects of a great commonwealth from such a preposterous attempt to turn 3,000 children inside out. But even this is not the worst of the matter. The one peril against which the wisest educator guards the children with sleepless vigilance, is, the premature self-consciousness that is already dashing the bloom of childhood from the cheek; turning child-life into a perpetual dress parade; reversing the natural order of child-

hood and youth, maturity and age; and filling the land with little big-heads on young shoulders. Especially mischievous is this stimulation of childhood in several millions of the offspring of the multitudes of the humble sort of people from abroad and the swarms of the children of the freedmen. It is of very little consequence what children think of a thousand important things about which they have little disposition and less capacity to inform themselves. But it is of tremendous mischievous consequence that the children who are to shoulder the burdens of the world's Chief Republic should be "tormented before their time," even at the behest of a "science," at best tentative, and always in peril of toppling over the dizzy brink of theory into the abyss of nescience and inanity.

On the subject of cramming for examinations, the Earl of Dufferin has lately been having a word to say when presiding as chancellor at the conferring of degrees at the University of Ireland. But in his references he spoke more of the "coacher" than the schoolmaster, and all that he could say in its favor was that the military officers passing through the hands of the coach have shown themselves to be infinitely superior to those who obtained appointments through the nomination and purchase system before that "abomination" of cramming was heard of. There is "war" in Boston at the present moment over the same subject, at least Mr. William Hawly Smith declares such to be the case as he fires what he calls "his big gun" while discussing the failure of Dr. A. W. Edson, of Worcester, to pass the examination which the New York Board of Education sets for those ambitious enough to become one of its deputy-superintendents. It would not be honorable for us to reproduce the whole of Mr. Hawly Smith's article

for it is copyrighted; but he virtually says that it was the memory-test that slew Dr. Edson, which, though it annually slays multitudes of would-be teachers, is not at all. Mr. Beecher's declaration that "they who die in a good cause are redeemed from death," Mr. Smith thinks is a sentiment thoroughly true, and even if this trial should kill Dr. Edson, still would he die, as this modern reformer says, in the interest of a good cause, and the blood of his martyrdom would be the seed of a new era in examinationdom. "But he won't have to die," exclaims his somewhat excited admirer. "His temporary defeat at the hands of a belated barbaric method that still lingers in modern times, is enough to incite a school teacher's rebellion that will, ere long, wipe this untimely nuisance off the face of the earth. But we shall have to fight if we would win. Won't you begin the fight in your locality? You, I'm talking to—you who are reading these lines. Won't you broach this subject in your next county institute? Won't you help bring the matter up in the next meeting of the state association? Won't you help appeal it to the supreme court of our educational country—the National Educational Association? If we will do this, and move together, we can win shortly and surely. Let's do it! Lend a hand."

Those of our readers who will maintain after this that examinations are not doomed, must count on having Mr. William Hawly Smith to deal with, and a war with Spain or any other country would be nothing to the excitement that is likely to follow any opposition to his heroic advocacy. What can Dr. Edson be thinking of his Boston friends by this time?

The University of London has at last, it is said, after fifteen years of

patient waiting on the part of its friends, come into full view of an outerpoint of success. From being an examining body it expects to be also a teaching body; and apropos of this step, one of its graduates has written to the press placing the matter in so striking a manner that no one can miss seeing the injury London has received by the withholding of such an institution. As the *Educational Review* says, Mr. Dare, the graduate already mentioned, shows that Scotland, with a population of four millions, has as many as four teaching universities, while London has none, though it numbers six million inhabitants. A young Scotchman, if he wants to have a university education, has the greatest facility for obtaining it. A host of bursaries, scholarships, exhibitions, etc., are open to him if he is a poor man. Where is this to be found in England, and particularly in London, with its population half as numerous again as the whole of Scotland? And what is the result? There is a constant stream of needy Scotchmen pouring into England and taking good berths and positions, from which the uneducated or half-educated young Englishman is excluded. Now this crying injustice to young Englishman can only be remedied by increasing the number of teaching universities and by a general lowering of the high fees obtaining at such as University College and King's College. No poor man can pay such fees. Compare them with those of St. Andrew's or Aberdeen.

Indirectly in this connection the *Review* further says: "We are glad to see that the highly influential conference which was recently held in London to consider the question of the higher education of women, passed a resolution in favor of affiliating the different women colleges to the proposed Teaching University in London. Since the refusal of Oxford and Cam-

bridge to grant degrees to women, the question of providing some means which would adequately express the attainments of women has been a burning one. The conference fully discussed the question of the advisability of establishing a Woman's University, but it very wisely, we think, came to the conclusion that the best interests of women demanded that their colleges should be affiliated to a university in which the provision for male education was its chief function." The *London Times* in commenting on this resolution very properly remarks: "A university in which there was a constant reference to, or even an unconscious adaptation to, an imitation of the best male education of the day, would probably be more likely to exert a really beneficial influence upon existing female standards than one conducted by women for women, and in which the female element was not only supreme, but isolated." We think there can be but little doubt of the truth of this statement.

"The Bible is efficiently taught in the Protestant Schools, Jewish children

are not obliged to take New Testament lessons, but very many of them do so voluntarily; and it is satisfactory to know that not the slightest difficulty has arisen among the Protestant denominations over the matter of Biblical instruction during the last thirty years. This says much for the wisdom of the School Board and its staff of teachers, and especially for the admirable spirit of Christian unity which pervades all Protestant denominations. There is no reason why it should be otherwise—God's book is the best that can hold a place in the programme of any educational system or institution, and why should not all be agreed to have its contents taught to the young."

The above was written of the Protestant Schools in Montreal. We believe that the same is true of all the Protestant Schools in the Province of Quebec. Is there any good reason why the same commendable statement could not be made regarding the Public Schools of Ontario? We know of no sufficient reason. We hold that Quebec has other points for us, in Ontario, to follow, and to our advantage to follow, besides the one noted above.

CURRENT EVENTS AND COMMENTS.

THE politician in New Brunswick is not much in advance of the politician of any of the other provinces, when the question of education is up for consideration. The people of London are agitating for a Teaching University, and it is a marvel that they have been so long without one. The politician of New Brunswick, however, thinks that his province has no need for a university, and his brother of the same degree pseudo-statesmanship in Quebec, has come to consider

a college something altogether unworthy provincial support. The good sense of the people of New Brunswick, the *Educational Review* of that province tells us, will lead them to resist any attempt to cripple the cause of higher education. If it were seriously contemplated—which it is not—to do away with the University and establish instead an agricultural college, such a step would be an acknowledgment that we are incapable of appreciating the real function

of a university. Granting that an agricultural college is needed, it does not follow that the arch of our educational system is to be pulled down to supply the material.

And there is every reason to believe that the people of Quebec will also stand by their institutions of learning, should the government persevere with their new school law at the next session of the Local Legislature. A system of public instruction consists of three facts, the elementary school, the intermediate school and the college, and a legislature that attempts the weakening of any one of these integral facts of the system, has denied the faith of having better things for the rising generation. And yet we are told some of the Quebec Colleges have received warning that their grant is about to be taken away. Another step is about to be taken in New Brunswick, which it is to be hoped will be taken in Quebec at an early date, namely the conveying of pupils to and from school. The plan has been adopted in the United States, where central schools are found to be more efficient than the ordinary district school, and much less expensive to the ratepayer. The new Education Bill of Quebec, lately defeated in the Legislature and about which the newspapers are finding little that is good to say, had a clause in it permitting districts to provide for the conveyance of pupils to and from school, and it is a wonder that the Department of Public Instruction has not been able to do something in this direction, through the inspectors before this. All that is necessary is a little missionary effort on the part of the inspectors to influence the ratepayer to take to the new departure. There are too many schools in all our provinces.

Lord Strathcona has written to the teachers of Great Britain the follow-

ing letter, which carries with it the necessary conviction that may yet make the whole Anglo-Saxon world akin.

Office of the High Commissioner for Canada :

17 VICTORIA STREET, S.W.,

January 26th.

SIR,—The attention that is devoted in the schools to making the rising generation better acquainted than formerly with the resources and capabilities of the outlying portions of the Empire is very gratifying.

Schoolmasters are frequently asked for information about the different colonies ; and the studies of the pupils in this connection result also in the subject being discussed in many homes in which it might not otherwise be mentioned.

If the rising generation are made to realise the importance of the heritage which is being handed down to them, no fears need be entertained for the maintenance of the Empire. Closer union between its different parts is also sure to follow, with the result of adding to its power and strength and of increasing its commerce.

I shall be glad to hear from any schoolmasters interested in the question and to send them pamphlets, which can be used to aid the study of the history, geography, and resources of Canada, and also to lend lantern slides and matter for lectures to meet this very practical method of supplementing the ordinary method of teaching which is now so largely adopted.

STRATHCONA.

The Brighton School Board have requested the borough magistrates to express an opinion adverse to the serving of drink to children in public-houses. Similar expressions of opinion have fallen from other benches of magistrates in the county, and it is thought that they will have consider-

able weight with the trade. In bringing forward the resolution, a member of the Board said there was no hostile felling towards the publicans, who, it was considered, would welcome any action of this kind. It was stated that in the case of one public-house that was kept under observation, a hundred children entered in forty minutes, 80 per cent. of whom were under twelve years of age, whilst two of them were taken to be not more than three years old. Some of the children were seen to drink from the jugs that they carried.

Too many cooks spoil the broth, and, according to Mrs. Davies in the last *Contemporary Review*, there are in England a vast number not of cooks, but of teachers of cookery, with little or no practical results, except the gaining of Government grants. Housewives who are unfortunate enough to be cookless will certainly bear out Mrs. Davies's contention. An advertisement for a governess will bring scores of answers; an advertisement for a cook will fail to attract a single one. The causes of this failure, according to Mrs. Davies, are twofold. First and foremost, the teachers have no real grip of their subject. They have obtained certificates after a perfunctory training in schools of cookery managed by amateur committees, or under no official supervision. Secondly, the classes are too large, and the time allowed too short—about a fourth of that devoted to needle-work. The remedy is obvious. There must be proper State supervision, both of training schools for cookery and of the classes.—*Journal of Education*.

Lord Reay, chairman of the School Board for London, writes, appealing to the public on behalf of the funds of the London Schools Dinner Association, which, now in the ninth year

of its existence, has for its object the provision of meals for necessitous children attending the Board and voluntary schools throughout London. Last winter the association assisted 150 schools through the agency of fifty-two local committees, and provided 345,000 meals at a cost of 1,377*l*. The Prince of Wales has kindly supported the association by sending a donation, and Lord Reay trusts that many charitable people will be willing to follow his example. Contributions will be gratefully acknowledged by the Honorable Treasurer, Lord Kinnaid, 1 Pall Mall East, or by the Secretary, Mr. T. A. Spalding, 37 Norfolk Street, Strand.

At the annual meeting of the Lloyd Association of Great Britain, the chairman said that they were approaching some material developments of education, and he was glad to see that the work of the upper standard schools, which was the completion of the education system, had won recognition. He contended that among the curricula for the various schools they should have an industrial system which would enable the scholars to go into the earlier stages of skilled trades. There should be such a training of the hand and eye as would give a boy of fifteen or sixteen a development of the power of work on the lines required for bench and anvil. They would have to plan schools of types in which manual training would have a very large part, so that the young might be educated in a fuller manner and their artistic taste and intelligence be brought out. This expansion of the educational system of the country was very important, and the needs of girls as well as boys would have to be considered in the new departure.

A most important question was brought forward at a school attend

ance committee meeting near Hull on Tuesday—viz., how to get regularity of attendance of children in the rural districts. In towns children are closer together—an officer's district is manageable. Above all, the town workman knows the value of education, and insists on his children going when possible. Also, infractions of the Act are more easily detected, the factory inspector, being everywhere about, and child labor discountenanced. In the rural districts not only is the attendance officer's district wide, the employers of child labor scattered here and there, but also there is lack of appreciation for learning among the people, so that the few pence a day the child can bring in are regarded as preferable to the schooling. Therein lies the chief difficulty. The Vicar of Kirkella introduced the deputation. It suggested that he and the clergy might do a good work by teaching the rural folk that the parents who, from time to time, are convicted of beating, starving, and neglecting their children, are scarcely more cruel than those who deprive them of that education the nation provides and intends them to have. All can cry out against the folly of the young man who sells his reversion for a song; but that is nothing to the parent who, for the sake of a few pence daily, sells his children's chance for the future. It is the birthright for a mess of pottage over again.—*Church Review*.

Truly they do things on a grand scale on the other side of the line. The latest educational proposal is calculated to take away one's breath. It is nothing less than the building of an ideal home for the University of California. The discretion of the designer is to be unfettered. All he is asked to do is "to record his conception of an ideal home for a University, assuming time and resources to be

unlimited." Existing buildings are to be swept away, and on a cleared space of ground he is to erect "at least twenty-eight buildings, all mutually related; and, at the same time, cut off, as a whole, from anything which might mar the effects of the picture." The grounds and the buildings are to be treated together, landscape gardening and architecture forming one composition. Five millions of dollars have already been pledged, and further sums will be forthcoming as the work proceeds. The Horsham scheme is not a patch upon it.

The New Education is thus commented upon by a ratepayer of the "right sort." In his amusing letter he draws the attention of the rate-paying public to the inefficiency of the education imparted to the youths who have passed through the Board schools, giving a few illustrations of the sort of grammar that had been learnt. In doing so he has done the public a great service, and they will now be able to consider at their leisure whether "the game is worth the candle;" or, in other words, whether all the millions that have been expended in the erection of enormous buildings for the education of poor people's children have been justified by the results. Any manager of a business who, on taking stock after a certain time, found that it did not yield satisfactory results for the amount of money, time and labor employed in it, would be foolish to continue wasting all three in carrying it on, and the sooner it was wound up the better. Private schools gave much more attention to scholars in the olden time, and turned them out fit and capable for any ordinary business, and it seems a pity that the system was ever altered, to say nothing of the gross injustice of making those persons who have no children pay for educating other persons' chil-

dren, and those who send their children to private schools or colleges pay also for those who do not. I would suggest that if all the Board schools were turned into granaries for the storage of corn they would prove of much more use to the country and its people in the event of possible war, famine and surrender.

The above gentleman must have been reading the funny answers to examination questions, possibly one of the following, if not both. "What do you know about Lord Wolseley?" Reply: "He was a minister of Henry VIII., who exclaimed, 'If I had served my God as I have served my king I should not have been beheaded.'" "Give a definition of 'Tithes.'" Reply: "Things worn by ladies in circuses and pantomimes."

A QUAIN OLD SCHOOL-BOOK.

E. T. Carson, county auditor, has come into possession of a quaint mathematical volume. The title of the work is "The Federal Calculator, American Schoolmaster's Assistant, and Young Man's Companion." This book was published in Troy, N.Y., in 1802, the author being Daniel Hawley.

The author, in his preface, declares that he would not have attempted to perfect the work had it not been for an Act of Congress, passed in April, 1792, establishing eagles, dollars, dimes, cents, and mills as the common money of account in the United States, this mode of keeping accounts growing so rapidly that the author presumed he was serving the public by revising and adapting it.

Among the general problems at the close of the work are a number that seem peculiar at this day.

"An ancient lady, being asked how old she was, to avoid a direct answer,

said: "I have nine children, and there are three years between the birth of each of them; the eldest was born when I was nineteen years old, which is now exactly the age of the youngest. How old was the lady?"

"A gentleman went to sea at seventeen years of age. Eight years after that he had a son born, who lived forty-six years, and died before his father, after whom the father lived twice twenty years, and then died also. I demand the age of the father when he died."

"A man, driving his geese to market, was met by a man, who said good-morning with your hundred geese. I have not an hundred geese, says he; but if I had half as many as I now have, and two geese and a half, besides the number I have already, I should have an hundred. How many had he?"

The last three pages of the book are taken up with what the author gives as "copies" among them being these:

"When sorrow is asleep, wake it not."

"Malice seldom wants a mark to shoot at."

"Better unborn than untaught."

"He who seeks trouble never misses it."

"Kings, as well as other men, must die."

The Imitation Parliament is to be followed by the School City, and this is how the experiment came to be first tried: The founder of the "Patriotic League," New York City, Mr. Wilson L. Gill, conceived the idea last year of erecting a mimic city government in a vacation school of that city, to advance the study of citizenship—the chief purpose of the "League." The experiment was made and proved a success. Unruly boys became manageable and every-

body enjoyed the new responsibility. They held elections, and the mayor appointed a president of the board of health, a commissioner of street cleaning, commissioner of police, and three judges, etc., etc. The board of health appointed its inspectors, the commissioner of police selected a chief, a captain for each class, and policemen, and the judges named a clerk of the court. The teacher was honored by an appointment on the board of health. Civil Service rules prevailed. At the close of the school the mayor of New York city was invited to pay a visit to the mayor of the school city. He went in person and became a convert to the self-regulation scheme.

About the last elections in Ontario the *Evangelical Churchman* speaks on this wise:—

The recent Provincial elections and their results lead us to make a few reflections, which, as our position is absolutely neutral in politics, we can do without fear of giving offence to any. The electoral conflict, which has engrossed attention during the past six weeks, shows us that we have by no means attained to an ideal condition in our political life. There has been a lack of dignity and seriousness, a want of elevation in the methods pursued, much blind partisanship, bitterness of recrimination and recklessness of personal charges. It has been too much overlooked that there are duties and responsibilities devolving upon the Government, upon the Opposition, and upon the Press.

The State in its own sphere is as truly a Divine institution as the Church; rulers are ministers of God, called and appointed to discharge divinely constituted functions of government. Rulers and legislators are stewards entrusted with the political and social well-being of their fellows. Their position is not given

them for their own aggrandizement. They are public servants, invested with weighty responsibilities, for the right discharge of which they are accountable to God, and under Him to those who have chosen them to act on their behalf in the government of the land.

Those who seek to obtain office or to retain it simply because of the emoluments it may yield or the honor or profit which may accrue to themselves, are not worthy of it. Legislators who act not from conviction and principle, but from a desire to retain their place, disclose their unfitness for it. Men who by their conduct show that they are actuated by principle and that they aim at doing right without fear or favor will command the confidence of their fellows. Time-servers may win a transient popularity, but in the long run will fall into deserved contempt. When a Government passes acts simply to secure votes, or when it refrains from legislation which the interests of morality and righteousness demand and to which they had been pledged, it is no wonder if they, by their pusillanimity, lose the confidence of the country and meet with political reverses.

Then under our system of government, the Opposition also has its place and functions. A strong and rightly constituted Opposition is as necessary as a Cabinet for the preservation of that just balance of stability and progress which is essential to well ordered government. An Opposition errs when it makes its chief object to seek place and power by any means however unscrupulous; when it becomes captious and unreasonable in its criticisms, and when it follows methods which are not just and square.

Our legislators, on whatever side of the House they sit, ought to feel that the first consideration is the well-being

of the State, and not the triumph of a party. The object of a Government ought not to be to take advantage of its opponents, but to profit by their just criticisms and to adjust wisely and fairly all conflicting interests while they maintain integrity and exalt patriotism. The object of an Opposition ought not to be to harass and weaken a Government, but to watch legislation, check extravagance, expose abuses, while they acknowledge and honor what is praiseworthy and co-operate with heartiness and magnanimity in all that tends to the general well-being.

Nothing debauches politics more than a partisan press, which publishes only what serves its own party ends, and suppresses or distorts all that might tend to advance its opponents. A great responsibility lies upon the editors of political papers. We have few journals that exhibit the impartiality, the rectitude and the patriotism which ought to distinguish the organs of opinion in our land. The remedy is in the hands of our citizens. Let them refuse to countenance papers which indulge in personalities and misrepresentations. Let them insist upon purity, truth and honor in public journalism. If the prophets prophesy falsely, too often it is because the people love to have it so.

A reminiscence by Sir Joshua Fitch (at the Assistant-Masters' dinner): The trustees of a stagnating grammar school sought an interview with the members of the Endowed School Commission, stated their case, and asked advice. "To what do the trustees themselves attribute the decay of the school?" one of the commissioners inquired. After hesitation and consultation, a trustee humbly suggested: "Perhaps we had better send the commissioners a photograph of the headmaster!"

A Berlin headmaster has been contributing to a German medical weekly some interesting results of his experimental studies on the question of the over-pressure of school children. The best working days, he finds, are Mondays and Tuesdays, and the first two days after a holiday. The insertion of a holiday in the middle of the week would, it is thought, tend to a revival of the mental freshness which only lasts, as things are, till Tuesday afternoon. The best working hours are, similarly, the first two in the morning, and should according be reserved for the severer tasks; the three hours' afternoon teaching in the higher schools is especially fatiguing, and there should always be an interval in the middle. Holidays have, of course, a freshening effect, but it is not observable for more than four weeks—another reason for the more frequent insertion of rest days in working time. Much more might be done by proper arrangement of time-tables. The most fatiguing subjects are mathematics, foreign languages, and—more than everything—gymnastics, and, for many children, singing and drawing; while religion, German, natural science, and history strain the children but little. Sufficient consideration is not taken of easily tired children. Gymnastics, before or during teaching hours, are quite unsuited for mental work; the best restoratives are plenty of sleep, baths and walks.—*Daily News*.

Zeal for the public good is the characteristic of a man of honor, and a gentleman, and must take place of pleasures, profits, and all other private gratifications. Whoever wants this motive, is an open enemy, or an inglorious neuter to mankind, in proportion to the misapplied advantages with which nature and fortune have blessed him.—*Anonymous*.

SCHOOL WORK.

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES.

THOS. LINDSAY, TORONTO.

A REPORT came eastward from the Lick Observatory, on March 20th, that Mr. Perrine had discovered a faint comet, particulars not yet given as to whether it is one of those expected to visit us this year. It is within the light grasp of moderate telescopes, the brightness being estimated as of the 7th magnitude, on the usual star scale. It is passing northward and eastward through the constellation Pegasus, and is therefore visible before sunrise in the morning. Until an ephemeris is published it will be difficult to pick up the object in the telescope. Computing the path of a comet is very laborious work, yet an inspection of the processes as given in such works as Watson's *Theoretical Astronomy*, will show that when perturbations by other bodies are neglected, the analysis of the problem is within the range of elementary mathematics. Indeed many of the problems in practical astronomy are passed over from a mistaken idea regarding the amount of mathematical knowledge required for solution.

During April Jupiter will be the chief object for observation by the amateur. Passed opposition, the planet rises before sunset, and is therefore well up in the heavens at dusk. As the earth's orbital motion carries it away from the line joining Jupiter and the sun, the shadow cones cast by the former and by the satellites tend to the eastward; consequently when at transit over the planet's disc occurs, the satellite is seen to enter first, the shadow following and being still visible on the disc when the satellite has passed off. On the night of April 23rd, beginning at 10

o'clock, the phenomena of the transit of satellite I. and its shadow will be all visible at Toronto. On the following evening, again, this satellite will pass behind the planet at 7h. 20m., and the re-appearance will be out of the shadow of Jupiter at 10h. 13m. It is worthy of note that photographs taken of Jupiter have never been satisfactory, and at their best they would not of course show the difference in tint between various parts of the surface. This is another field open for the amateur, to sketch Jupiter at the telescope. The angular diameter of the planet is about forty seconds of arc, so that a three-inch telescope, with magnifying power of 60, will reveal an object much larger than the moon to the unaided eye. A good opportunity occurs in April to see Mercury, the eastern elongation occurs on the 10th, and for several evenings following, the planet should be easily seen. The high declination is an advantage in this case; Mercury sets about ten degrees north of the point of sunset.

Amateurs generally have difficulty in picking up the faint and distant planet Neptune. Occasionally, however, this object may be identified without much trouble. On April 24th, at 8 p.m., Neptune is four degrees south of the moon, while about three degrees north of the crescent is the second magnitude star Beta Tauri. This configuration of the three objects may help to identify Neptune.

It has been announced that the large telescope of Toronto observatory is to be brought into service in spectroscopic research, and we may expect to hear of some success in that direction. Instruments of the highest excellence are among the equipment, but there has been always a difficulty in finding time that was not devoted to regular meteorological work. We

understand that the director, Mr. R. F. Stupart, has placed the instruments at the service of one or two amateurs of this city.

SCIENCE.

J. B. TURNER, B.A., EDITOR.

QUITE recently a circular embodying certain suggestions with regard to curriculum of studies has been sent to the different High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, and opinions are asked for as to the advisability of the proposed changes. Of the three "major" suggestions, the third is of the greatest importance to the students and teachers of science. In this it is proposed that an examination practically the same as the present First Form examination shall be held, but that a year more be allowed for the preparation for it. To any one acquainted with the position of affairs that must appear to be a very wise suggestion. One year, the time allowed at present, for botany is entirely inadequate for the proper teaching of the subject, especially when it is remembered that the students who have to do the work in that time are the youngest in the schools, and further that of the year scarcely more than three months are available for the purposes of the practical work that is required to be done.

Of the "minor" suggestions one and two are in line with what the regulations of the Department of Education now require, while six proposes the addition of another science subject, namely, either geology or mineralogy. This is a proposition which calls for very careful consideration, and more especially by those who desire to see science take its proper place in our system of education, both as a means of training and as a subject of useful knowledge. Much progress has been made during the last decade in the teaching

of science in our schools, and the subjects in this branch that are now taught were chosen after careful consideration. Such being the case it will be wise before any additions are made to first see that the position occupied by these subjects is a satisfactory one. If it is a fact that the teaching of each and all of the sciences now attempted is being done in a manner suited to the importance of these subjects, then we may proceed to consider the advisability of increasing the number of subjects.

No one questions the value of the study of either geology or mineralogy, but it is a question for careful consideration whether the position of the science would be improved by the addition of either or both of these. With regard to geology much could be done by way of introduction to this subject in the teaching of the physical geography prescribed in the course for First Form students.

The circular makes no mention either of physics or zoology, subjects at present on the course of study, but this is doubtless an oversight, as any proposition to omit either of these valuable subjects should receive but scant consideration.

The following is the paper in Methods in Science for Specialist's Certificate at the examination for the Ontario Normal College in December, 1897:

ONTARIO NORMAL COLLEGE, 1897.

METHODS IN SCIENCE.

(For Specialists.)

Examiners: { J. D. DICKSON, B.A.
W. H. JENKINS, B.A.

1. In a lesson on the common liverwort indicate (a) the relation which the mere acquisition of scientific nomenclature should bear to the other aims in the Study of Botany, (b) the method by which you would seek to achieve these aims.

2. Every High School pupil enter-

ing upon the study of Zoology has already acquired some skill in observing and some facility of expression. In a lesson on the grasshopper, taken as a first lesson on this type, show how you would utilise the above-mentioned powers to promote their growth.

3. "The mere performing of experiments in the laboratory, however well equipped the laboratory may be, cannot accomplish what is desired in the study of Science."

Assuming that you have a well-equipped chemical laboratory, illustrate your method of dealing with the element lead, so as to accomplish "what is desired."

4. Briefly describe the following plans of conducting experimental work in Physics, pointing out the advantages and disadvantages of each:—The individual method (simultaneous), the group method (simultaneous), the lecture method, the rotation method.

5. Teach a lesson on The Laws of Magnetic Induction, making use of the method you consider the most beneficial to the pupil.

ONTARIO NORMAL COLLEGE, HAMILTON.

The sessional examinations, which were begun on the 29th ult., will be continued until the 6th inst. An intermission then occurs until after the Easter holidays, when the examinations will be concluded.

The Women's Athletic Association gave a reception to the college boys and members of the collegiate basketball teams on Wednesday, the 2nd ult. With promenading and tête-à-têtes, the evening passed all too quickly and at a late hour the gathering dispersed.

On the 10th ult. a joint meeting of the college branches of the Y.W.C.A. and Y.M.C.A. was held in the

Assembly Hall, Mr. R. A. Thompson, B.A., presiding. The Rev. Dr. Beavis addressed the meeting on the subject of the Formation of Character, and sacred solos were rendered by the Rines brothers. The meeting was well attended, many of the collegiate students also being present.

The basket-ball tournament has at last terminated, and in future members of the teams will not be mistaken for would-be pugilists. More black eyes have been obtained accidentally in one month than during the whole foot-ball season. The Junior Leaving and Varsity teams played the final game on the 9th ult., the former winning the game and the championship.

A masquerade basket-ball match, which took place last Wednesday afternoon, was the source of much amusement. During half-time Messrs. Keys and Millar engaged in a fencing contest, which was the best feature of the programme.

The Literary Society have held a Mock Parliament at their last three meetings. Messrs. Bale, Race and Keith were the leaders of the Government, Opposition and Patron parties respectively. The tendency of these meetings has been to encourage public speaking, of which more has been done than at all the other meetings of the Society combined.

The list of lessons to be taught by each student during the term has been posted up in the corridors, and includes two lessons in Latin, two in Science, one in English or Reading, one in Grammar or Composition, one in French, one in German, one in Arithmetic and one in Algebra or Euclid. 1st C. students, moreover, have a lesson in Drawing or Book-keeping and one other extra lesson. Each student has also about five lessons to teach in the Public schools. The practical work is thus given a more prominent place in the work of the school than hitherto.

CORRESPONDENCE.

TEACHERS' SALARIES.

To the Editor of the *Witness* :

SIR,—I noticed a letter from one signing himself "Farmer," in your columns a few days ago, touching the question of teachers' salaries, and using some of the most remarkable arguments ever heard of from a man so intelligent as your correspondent appears to be. In some of his contentions he is undoubtedly correct, and notwithstanding the fact that some high officials of the educational world of this province advocate legislation, by which the minimum salaries of teachers should be fixed by law, I cordially support "Farmer" in his opinion that such would be absurd and unjust. From the days when our English ancestors passed the Statute of Laborers until now, the law of supply and demand has regulated the rate of wages. Legislative enactment can never, has never, made any very great inroads upon this law, and even when men were branded with an "F" upon their foreheads for seeking to better their position financially, the law to which I have referred, and which is a natural law, perforce regulated the case to a very great extent. I think the community may look with suspicion upon any attempt to force wages above or below what that law decides to be right under the circumstances, be that attempt the work of labor societies or paid officials of the educational bodies of this country.

But when the work and wages of educated and trained teachers are compared unfavorably with the work and rightful wages of domestic servants, I for one must dissent most vigorously. Whether some teachers

are or are not receiving all they are worth is not the question; the question is whether there is a greater value to be placed upon one kind of labor than upon another, and also whether the one who spends years of preparation and much money should receive a higher remuneration than the one who has done neither. I contend that there is no comparison between the work of the teacher and that of the domestic servant. In so far as mind is above matter, in so far as the character and fitness of our future citizens are above the cleanness of our floors or the whiteness of our linen, in so far as manners and morals are above puddings and pies, so far and farther is the work of the teacher to be ranked above that of the domestic servant in value. I do not wish to appear to underrate the work of a domestic; I would not belittle any honest labor. To me all honest toil is the service of God; but I do rank the labor of the preacher, the physician and the teacher at a higher value than the unskilled labor of the domestic or farm servant. To be logical, "Farmer" would have us believe that the miserable quack who administers Epsom salts and castor oil "*ad libitum*" should be paid for his services at the same rate as the skilled physician who has given years of study and has spent thousands of dollars in preparation for his life-work, if the former chance to spend more hours per day at his ignorant attempts to save life or ease pain.

Some of our teachers have spent two, three or four years at the academy, one or two at the Normal school and four at college at great expense, and yet "Farmer" would pay such men and women no more to teach his children than he pays to his servant who milks his cows and

feeds his chickens, if the latter chance to spend more hours a day at her humble, but honorable tasks.

True it is that some who call themselves teachers are but quacks; and this is the curse of our educational system. Such, I agree, get all they earn, and more; but the educated, the trained, the experienced teachers of our province are doing a work incomparably superior in character and value to that of the former class or of the domestic servant, and should receive a remuneration somewhat in proportion to the time and money spent in preparation and the value of their labor. The way to bring about a proper remuneration of such is not to make laws regulating salaries, but to make laws making it an offence to employ an untrained teacher for the minds of our boys and girls, as great as it is to employ and pay an untrained quack to doctor the bodies of the same, and perchance bring death into the home. In the latter case, the charge would be manslaughter; what would it be in the former? So long as young and inexperienced boys and girls are employed or allowed to be employed to train our youth, because they can be got at the wages of domestic servants, just so long will this province have to hang her head in shame, and just so long will the wages of our teachers in many places be less than that of domestic servants. I know that there are poor districts where the school tax is a heavy burden; but, Mr. Farmer, the school is for eternity; the dishes and pans for a day. There are school-houses in this province, even at this day, which are not comparable with the horse stables of some of the taxpayers for comfort and modern convenience. Am I to infer that the horses are of more value than the boys and girls because they plough eight hours a day instead of six, and therefore should have better quarters? I can-

not think this. It must be lack of thought and not of interest.

The authorities are doing all in their power to secure more money for our elementary schools, and better pay for better teachers, not for poor ones. Will the community, "Farmer" included, assist them, or are their efforts to uplift this province to be thwarted by opposition and want of sympathy? This seems to be the time for a mighty leap forward; it may never be repeated. Let all do their part and do it well, and the step will be taken. FARMER'S SON.

"THE PEDAGOGICAL TYPE."

THE foregoing is the title of an article in the February number of *The Bookman*, which it would be well for all teachers to read, on account of its suggestiveness and implied warning. On this article the following remarks are based.

The writer, Mr. George Merriam Hyde, appears to have small sympathy with the teacher; yet his remarks are in a large measure just. Now, no person with a fair amount of brains cares to be considered a type, and as all teachers are presumed to have this qualification, we will assume that none of them care for the appellation, yet the larger number of them deserve it, to a greater or less degree, and to a great extent it is their fault. But there is a remedy.

Too many teachers, when they come home tired from the day's work, and nervous from its annoyances, give themselves up to their weariness, and seek purely physical rest. Now, physical rest is good and necessary, but there is something more. Others come home with an armful of papers to be marked and work to be planned for the next day. This they let occupy the larger part of the time between school and bed time, and then they lie down exhausted. A third class

will, as soon as the opportunity offers, take out some work on pedagogy and delve over it until bed time. But on all of them the effect is the same. They return to school the next day weary and unstrung, tempted to hate themselves, their work, and their pupils. If you ask any one of these teachers if she has read a notable new book, she answers, "Oh, no, I have no time." If you hear her talking of her class in history, and the subject on which it is engaged, and say, "'s history of that country or period is so fine; of course you have read it?" She replies, "No, I have no time to read anything but what is prescribed for each day's lessons." If you ask if she has seen the last art-exhibit or been to a recent concert, she will say, "No, I am too tired to go out again after I get home. I should not enjoy them if I went." Now, are not the fault and the remedy clear? Let the teacher live more outside of her daily labor, as the members of almost any other profession will do, and the result will be evident in a very short time.

There is hardly a teacher that cannot spare or make at least half-an-hour a day for outside reading, by which is meant reading that is apparently totally unrelated to teaching. Let her read those of the new books which are awakening the most interest in the thinking world; let her read some of the famous books that have stood the test of years—novels, history, philosophy, poetry; if science interests her, let her become familiar with its past history and present developments; let her read biographies of those who have been the great ones of the world, and brief histories of art and music. If she has only a short time each day, she must not be discouraged, but seize it, for "mony a mickle makes a muckle." In addition to this, if she lives where there is opportunity, let her attend an art

exhibit or a concert occasionally, with the definite intention of enjoying it. To do any or all of these things, the teacher will probably have to make some effort at first, to overcome the feeling that she must rest, or work, or read pedagogical books. The answer to these objections is: first, that such reading as that recommended is both recreation and rest; second, that the work of marking papers, etc., will be carried on with much less effort after the mind has been refreshed by a total change of subject; third, that pedagogical reading need not be given up, but a fair division of time made, and in addition the pedagogical reading will be of much more benefit if attacked with a fresh mind, and from a new point of view. The present result will be that the teacher will return to her work next day with a mind refreshed and strengthened, her faculties alert, her nerves less sensitive to petty annoyances, and her recent reading proving of unexpected assistance in her daily work, by providing new material, illustrations, and arguments, and most important of all, new points of view. The final result will be that the teacher will gradually be drawn out of that rut into which she has been sliding, will be in touch with that active, thinking, living world outside of her vocation, and will cease to be one of a peculiar race. In a word, let the teacher live more outside of her teaching, and we shall hear less of the "pedagogical type."

EDITH GRANGER.

Dear Mr. Editor,

Can any of your readers throw any light upon the problem discussed in the following extract from one of our daily papers.

HISTORICUS.

It might seem about as profitless in the present age to try to supply a conclusive answer to this question as to endeavor to solve the equally

complicated riddle regarding the identity of the party who struck Billy Paterson. But there is nothing more remarkable than the present revival of interest in the subject in the United States, as evidenced by the animated way in which it is being discussed by the great American dailies and the American Historical and Antiquarian Societies and the conclusion which they are clearly arriving at that the claims of Christopher Columbus to be regarded, as he has been for some centuries, as the discoverer of the New World, are altogether groundless. Indeed, it is now granted by all the parties to the discussion that the most that can be claimed for the illustrious Genoese is that he re-discovered America, and that the credit of the original discovery belongs to others at least nine centuries before his time. Earnest research among and intelligent comparison between the musty records of the past, besides other evidence, are tending more and more to show that the Irish legend of St. Brendan and his discovery of America many centuries before Columbus saw the light of day is no myth, but founded on real, substantial facts. Not only do the Irish annals themselves bear out these, but they are strongly corroborated by the old Scandinavian sagas, upon the authenticity of which Humboldt and Usher have put the stamp of their authority, and which repeatedly speak of "Irland it Mikla" (Greater Ireland), as lying in the western ocean; by various old French and Dutch rhymes concerning the land discovered by St. Brendan, and existing centuries before Columbus, and last, but not least, by Jacobus Voragenius, Provincial of the Dominicans and Bishop of Genoa, Columbus' birthplace, who, in his *Golden Legend*, written long before Columbus set sail, spoke repeatedly of St. Brendan's land, the Hy-Brasil of the Irish, which was more-

over marked out vaguely in all the Italian maps of the time, and notably on that made by Paulo Toscanelli, of Florence, for Columbus himself before starting out on his first voyage. As remarked by the Boston *Daily Globe*, "supported by such authorities as these, it will undoubtedly need some stronger argument than styling it a myth to prove that in an age when Ireland was at the zenith of her power, possessed merchant ships and ships of war, St. Brendan, animated by the same spirit which prompted Columbus nine centuries later, did not discover America long before Columbus."

DEAR MR. EDITOR,—The teachers down our way have been comparing Mr. Clements' *Compendious History of Canada* with Mr. Roberts' book, and are daily expecting as a third element in the comparison, namely, Mr. Calkin's volume. What the final verdict is going to be, I am sure I cannot very well say, but as far as my examination of the two books goes, my own verdict is certainly in favor of Roberts'. Some of our newspapers have published criticisms of both books, and yet it would be well, would it not, for the practical teacher to avoid falling into the pit which, I am told, the secretary of the historical competition prepared for the teachers of Montreal when he got them to endorse a book they had not had the opportunity of reading. In the final verdict of our teachers who are to use the book, I am sure there will be no favoritism shown to the author, nor prejudice to his book. This is an age of fair play. Mr. Calkin, I see, has his volume in the press, and as soon as it appears the honest comparison, I suppose, will begin to be made.

Yours truly,

CHEDABUCTO.

Halifax, Nov. 29th, 1897.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

Behind a decorative spring cover one finds in the April *Scribner's* a variety of interest. Richard Harding Davis introduces a new and apparently flawless hero in *The King's Jackal*, Duncan Campbell Scott demonstrates how to gain a hearing by unlimited use of local color in a short story, called *A Legend of Welly Legrave*, a story of the Canadian wilderness, and Brander Matthews discusses the Conventions of the Drama. In fact the number is highly popular and deservedly so, but the reader in entertaining himself should not forget to read *The Point of View*, especially for the sake of the article entitled *The Commercial Value of Personal Publicity*.

The long lost *Amelie Rives* is the author of the complete novel in the April *Lippincott*. It is quite evident that the same person who wrote *The Quick or the Dead*, wrote the present love story, *Meriel*. It is probably the outcome of another experience, and it is frequently very interesting, besides showing internal evidence of a good deal of reading, Theocritus, Keats, Renan, Shakespeare, Pater, Browning, George Eliot, Tennyson, Isaiah and many others serving to decorate the character of the heroine.

The *Gay Gordons* from *Blackwood's Magazine* appears in *Littell's Living Age* for March 26th.

One of the most appropriate things in the April *St. Nicholas* is an *Alice Alphabet* by Carolyn Wells. Many past masters in the *Wonderland* books will read and remember with delight from "A is for Alice, who wrote to her feet," to "Z is the Zizzag the Mouse's Tale made." *The Bell Towers of Italy*, by John Ward,

is not only an interesting and instructive article, but it is very beautifully illustrated by Fern, Moran and Sayer.

The *Sunday School Times* in its issue for April 3rd considers an editorial which has recently been written elsewhere on *The Decay of the Sunday School*. There is also a particularly helpful article on *The Seven Graces of a Sunday School Teacher*.

A series of stories of *Working Girls* will be begun in the *Youth's Companion* during April. In these stories the aim has been to portray, with fidelity, the conditions which the self-supporting girl meets in factory life, business, the hospital, journalism or out-of-door work. The first of these, *Winning Her Stripes*, by Elizabeth B. Stryker, describes some experiences of a girl who chose the career of a professional nurse.

Our Lady of the Sunshine is a new summer annual which is to be issued by George N. Morang on the 1st of June. The publisher has spared no pains to secure a success worthy of his enterprise and the appearance of the magazine is waited with considerable interest.

One of the most interesting features of the March *Cosmopolitan* is a short story by Richard Harding Davis dealing with the present conditions in Cuba. The temper of the American nation is being fixed slowly in the heat of interval difficulty and foreign perplexity. There is an element in the United States that comes from British stock and they, at least, do not inherit a disposition to ignore anything — let us say — interesting.

Harold Frederic's story grows in interest. The usual number of finely illustrated descriptive articles appear in the present issue.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Webster's International Dictionary receives this well deserved praise from Hon. W. P. Reeves, Minister of Education for New Zealand: "Complete without being cumbrous, compact yet in no way scanty, the International Dictionary is both sufficiently scientific for the scholar and handy enough for the hurried man of business."

Simon Dale, by Anthony Hope, published by George N. Morang, Toronto, is such a dashing adventurous story of the time of Charles the Second, as one might expect from this prudent author. It is likely that many readers will find Nell Gwyn the most interesting character presented. Indeed, Mistress Barbara, who was

virtuous and charming too, sometimes is hard put to it with the reader who need not exercise a conscience—but how terrible if true! perhaps one should exercise a conscience in this. Mr. Hope is quite right not to trouble himself too much with the exact way things happened. Historical accuracy is not a virtue in a novel.

From the MacMillan Company, New York, we have received First Lessons with Plants, being an abridgement of Lessons with Plants by L. H. Bailey.

From MacMillan & Co., London, through their Toronto agents, the Copp Clark Co., we have received Euclid's Elements of Geometry. Books 1 and 2, edited by Charles Smith and Sophie Bryant; also a particularly attractive edition of Heinrich Heine's Lieder Und Gedichte, with notes and introduction by C. A. Buchheim.

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The Association closes the year with its business on a better foundation for the future than ever before in its history.

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ASSETS—The excess of cash income over cash disbursements of \$118,227 has been added to the cash and invested assets.

LIABILITIES—Included in the liabilities as reported the current year, as last year, is every loss of which the Association had any notice whatever, thus embracing a very considerable sum of losses of which no item of proof has been received. As stated, however, every such dollar to the last report received has been included.

BUSINESS RECEIVED AND WRITTEN—The business submitted from the agency force during 1897 exceeded that received from the same source in 1896, amounting as it does to \$71,525,755.

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THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

MAY, 1898.

MORAL TRAINING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

PROFESSOR JAMES GIBSON HUME, M.A., PH.D.

MANY writers have dwelt upon the significance of the fact that the human child is at birth most helpless; that the period of growth, dependence and susceptibility to influence of parents is consequently very extended. The child was the earliest educator of the race, compelling the savage to cultivate home life and thus begin to acquire an insight into art, science and religion.

The home is the fundamental institution. The nursery is the centre of the home. The Public School is the national nursery. Here the nation recognizes its parental responsibilities and endeavors to fulfil its parental obligations. Amid many influences, tending to disintegrate civilization, it is matter for congratulation that the interest in the child is increasing.

The subject of this address is Moral Training, not Religious Instruction. Morality should be distinguished from religion, and training is not identical with instruction. The teacher is familiar with the contrast between instruction and education. After the reformation in the study of science, associated with the name of Bacon, the Reformation in the Church by Luther, and the counter-reformation by Loyola, we have an educational reformation—the inauguration of education in place of instruction, in

reality an adoption of the method of Socrates. Instruction tends to dogmatism. It gives carefully prepared information to the pupil. Education tends to enquiry. It endeavors to elicit from the pupil the expression of his own capabilities, and the consequent development of power through effort and exercise. The educational reformation has been more successful in the teaching of intellectual and scientific truths than it has been in the field of morality and religion. In religion the method of dogmatic instruction is still predominant.

Morality and religion are not identical—many, in fact, so separate them as to make them antagonistic. Morality is supposed to be either a sufficient or a false substitute for religion. Both views are erroneous. Morality and religion are different, but harmoniously co-operating. The two blades of a pair of scissors might illustrate apparently opposing forces working together for a common result. But these forces are on an equal footing, while morality and religion are unequal; morality being the simpler, less adequate, religion the more adequate, more inclusive.

When it is admitted that religion is more complete than morality many are inclined to say, "Why have anything to do with a second best?" But religion is not advanced by ignor-

ing or rejecting morality. The gardener desiring fruit upon his apple trees would be foolish indeed to strip off the blossoms. In the same way, if we desire the fruits of righteousness and holiness we must not despise or destroy the blossoms of morality. Do not follow the soldier's example, who, learning that it was the bullet that did the execution, not the gunpowder, proceeded to leave out the powder and put in two bullets instead. On the other hand, a morality that is true to itself cannot be self-sufficient and exclusive of religion, but must culminate in the recognition and adoption of the standpoint of religion. This may be seen by a slight examination of the moralist's own admissions and their implications. The moralist says much about duty and obligation. Sometimes duty is sub-divided into duties we owe ourselves, duties to others and duties to God. If morality excludes religion we must leave out duties to God. But can we fulfil completely duties to ourselves and to others if we make this elimination? Why do we recognize and admit duty to self? The moralist ready to defend his position may reply, "not because of any alien force or arbitrary command." Although some theologians have conceived Divine laws in this external and arbitrary relation to the individual, we may quite well grant what the moralist says and still maintain religion. For the moralist's answer is merely negative, and we require a positive answer. The moralist may attempt to give such answer by saying duty is a reasonable demand. In doing right the individual is acting in a manner that is true and loyal to the deepest significance of his own being. He may quote the poet's words :

"To thine ownself be true,
And it must follow, as the night the
day,
Thou canst not then be false to any
man."

The poet's statement suggests a further truth that a man cannot be quite true to himself without including proper relations to other selves, to give content and significance to the life and conduct of the individual.

Now, if we carefully examine the implications of the moralist's admissions, we may discover that he is really claiming that we should adopt and act in accordance with those principles and in those ways that tend to produce, express, develop and realize the most perfect self-hood ; the truest personality. It is evident that this implies that the real goal and ultimate standard of all right conduct is conformity to the character of a perfect person. The whole position rests upon an implicit respect and reverence for the claims of perfect personality. But who is the perfect person? When the moralist can answer this question without referring to God then possibly he may have a kind of morality that does not involve a religious aspect.

Of course it is true that there may be earlier and later stages in moral growth, and there may be a genuine and honest respect for moral laws without an explicit recognition of the Divine Person. But the earnest and sincere moralist who becomes explicitly aware of the just and reasonable claims of the Divine Person cannot consistently ignore or repudiate these claims.

It is not meant in speaking of earlier and later stages that morality grows like a plant. Morality does not "grow of itself," still less does it "grow" into religion, for moral advance demands a spiritual self-expression on the part of the individual, a willing and chosen subordination of the individual likes and dislikes to some conceived higher way of thinking, living and acting. And when the claims of the Divine Person become consciously recognized, a moral act,

an act of choice, is required on the human side before any transition can be made to the explicit religious life. Religion requires the co-operation of a Divine Person and a human person. Theology, in dwelling upon the Divine side of this co-operating relation, has sometimes overlooked the human element involved in the very inception of the religious life.

With the explicit adoption of the religious standpoint, morality does not cease; it is now transformed and acquires a new and deeper significance; but all through the truly religious life morality continues as the human side of the obedient response to the recognized and adopted Divine commands and ideals.

The teacher who is aware of the relation in which morality stands to religion may consciously utilize the moral training of the child as a preparation for the religious life, and as an indispensable element afterwards, throughout the whole of the transformed religious life. The explicit recognition and conscious adoption of the religious standpoint does not usually take place in the child's life until a certain stage of self-consciousness is reached. Statistics of conversion place the greatest number at sixteen to seventeen years of age. But neither moral training nor religious instruction need to wait for this period. On the contrary they should precede and prepare for it, and it is evident that from the earliest years, and all through the child's life, moral training may be efficiently carried on. If the child has learnt to respond obediently, willingly and gladly to the moral demands, he is being prepared to take the further step in the moral, manly stand, involved in admitting the claims of the Divine Person, when these become explicitly recognized.

Let us notice the bearing of our conclusions upon the charge that our

Public Schools give merely an intellectual training, and that religious instruction, the reading of the Bible without comment, is required to amend this defect. If this charge were true there seems to be a certain amount of inconsistency in the proposal to amend this condition by simply adding some more mental drill. For the mere reading of the Bible without comment is simply an intellectual exercise. Even the memorizing of Bible truths may be a merely intellectual exercise of an inferior order, even from the intellectual side, and not at all affecting the moral or religious nature of the child.

The teacher's comment being prohibited, any attempt to make the religious instruction educative is seriously handicapped. It might be in order to ask: "If the teacher be entrusted with any religious exercises, should he not be more trusted?"

But it is simply untrue that the Public Schools of Ontario give merely an intellectual drill. I am not referring to the modicum of religious instruction in the opening and closing the schools with prayer, and the reading of a few verses from the Bible. Altogether apart from this, the whole exercises of the school are moral as well as intellectual. Every part of the school work can be utilized and is being utilized by efficient teachers in the moral training of the pupils.

The true teacher is not teaching arithmetic, literature or history to his pupils, but is training his pupils mentally and morally by means of these topics. He keeps before him constantly an ideal for which he strives, the harmonious development of all the child's powers, and he is never forgetful of the higher æsthetic moral and religious demands of the child's nature. With patient care he trains the child with these higher results constantly in mind.

Let us first notice the moral aspect

of school organization and management, and of the intellectual exercises in a general way.

There can be no teaching without school organization and school management. But there can be no organization or management of pupils rising higher than mere compulsion and fear that does not rest upon a moral basis—on right, not might.

The very first prerequisite for teaching is a moral condition involved in the organization of the school. And such organization and management is not merely a means or condition of the mental training. It has significance also for the further moral training of the pupils. In school management the teacher is endeavoring to morally train his pupils in the habits and virtues of order, obedience, courtesy, and respect for law.

The child learns social co-operation; respect for others and their rights, the basis of good manners and good morals. He is taught self-control and self-expression in the orderly social life of the school. He is thus led to develop his own moral nature and acquire moral habits as he takes his place in the organized school life and fulfils its duties.

The intellectual exercises of the school have also a moral significance that is sometimes strangely overlooked. There can be no intellectual advance without attention. But on the moral side attention demands earnestness and concentration of purpose. If continued, as it must be in the more difficult parts of the intellectual training, the child acquires in this painstaking application the moral qualities of perseverance, patience and self-denial. If the intellectual training is successful in arousing, quickening and establishing a genuine interest in the discovery of truth, the child gets a glimpse of the significance of the ideal. He learns the lesson of self-control, self-expression and self-

development in devotion to the claims of truth, which is higher than selfishness, higher than mere likings, aversions and individual waywardness and caprice.

This attitude to truth is invaluable in leading to a similar recognition of the claims of beauty, goodness and righteousness.

It is evident that the habits above mentioned are not merely intellectual achievements. They are moral elements incorporated into the life and forming part of the character of the child.

Subdividing the above general considerations, we may note the possibilities of moral training in the physical, intellectual, æsthetic and social aspects of the school life.

Physical training may be made a basis for valuable moral results. Erect and manly bearing helps courage, and courage is a fundamental virtue. Cleanliness and neatness helps self-respect. Courage and self-respect will assist in repudiating many degrading habits. These will appear as mean, unworthy, contemptible to the self-respecting child. The boy's desire to become strong and manly should be utilized in warning him against cigarette smoking and all debilitating and demeaning practices. The girl's desire to be comely and attractive may be appealed to in a similar manner, and true beauty of soul inculcated. From this standpoint all degrading forms of punishment, such as pulling the ears of the pupil, are to be deprecated. The teacher should train the pupil to regard the body as the sacred temple of the spirit.

Intellectual training has been already dealt with in general terms. The moral value of a genuine interest in study must not be overlooked. To work assiduously to pass an examination may train insubordination of lazy tendencies. Although there may be concentration of purpose without

true morality, for an evil end may be persistently pursued, it is nevertheless true that there can be no strength of character, no advance in goodness, upon the basis of vacillating instability of disposition. In the prevention of copying an occasion is given to teach honesty, self-respect and self-reliance.

The æsthetic side of the child's nature is influenced by surroundings. There should be good pictures in the schoolroom. The child should be taught to appreciate the beauties of nature. Music may be made a potent refining influence. The wide possibilities for influencing the children's dispositions through suitable music and appropriate words is worthy of the teacher's careful attention.

The social side of the child's nature is developed in connection with the organization and management of the school which involves at every step the co-operation of the pupil.

The playground should be supervised by the teacher to assist the pupils in forming a true code of honor in the games, where the child may learn to despise meanness, cheating and roughness, and may cultivate a spirit of fairness, truthfulness, and brave self-control.

In all the discipline of the school the moral aspect becomes more prominent. No punishment is properly viewed apart from its moral tendency. The whole purpose of discipline is to correct, modify, amend and improve the conduct, and through this the character of the pupil. In this way the pupil is being prepared for the duties and responsibilities of later years in the home and civic life.

If the axiom that all punishments and corrections should be administered with dignity, calmness, kindness, courtesy and mutual respect were kept in mind, corporal punishment would tend to become a vanishing quantity if it did not disappear altogether.

It is the teacher's duty to assist the pupil in preserving self-respect. For this reason reproof or correction should in nearly every case be privately given, seldom before the other pupils, never before visiting strangers or inspector. When rules are broken the teacher should very carefully seek for the motive that actuated the disobedient child. Was it ignorance, carelessness; mischief, or defiance? The teacher should lead the pupil to regard him as a true friend. The teacher should expect a great deal from his pupils. Unblessed is the teacher who expecteth little—he will not be disappointed. The teacher should trust his pupils and endeavor to assist them in living up to the high standard of his confidence in them.

No rules should be arbitrary, and all rules should be explained. In this way the pupil learns that right and duty are not mere commands capriciously enforced by a stronger power, but based upon deepest reason.

With regard to the direct enunciation of moral rules and principles, we may notice that all through the literature used in the schoolroom are to be found skilful and beautiful expositions of moral ideals. The teacher of tact and insight will know when and how to add his hearty approbation of noble sentiments. He may also utilize essays and supplementary reading in the same way. This is more effective than learning definitions of moral virtues. Beware of Pecksniffian moralizings.

Although my topic is Moral Training, not Religious Instruction, I have been compelled to take some notice of the latter vexed question.

It should be evident from what has been said that a great deal of moral training can be carried on successfully whether religious instruction be given or not.

Those optimistic people who say we all ought to agree upon the more im-

portant religious truths, and have these taught in the Public Schools, should be reminded that we live in a world of stern realities, and must not shut our eyes to the fact that it is notorious that people do differ about these truths; and even with regard to those religious truths about which there is most agreement, there is an inveterate tendency to fight over the points of difference to an astonishing extent.

While this remains the state of affairs, it is evident that such dividing topics should not form a compulsory or essential part of the exercises in national schools, which were intended to be a bond of union, not a bone of contention among citizens.

It must not be forgotten that the Public School is only one of the agencies employed in educating the child. The Public School was intended to co-operate with home and church influences, it was not meant to supersede them.

If some of the more zealous clergymen who spend much energy in an attempt to incorporate religious instruction in the Public School program would direct some of it to the revival of family worship, perhaps more results would be attained. The home is the central institution; Church, Sunday School and Public School are subordinated to it. At any rate the Public School teacher is not meant to supersede the parent, but to be his efficient and sympathetic assistant.

The foolish statement that the Public Schools are creating criminals scarcely needs refutation. It is as senseless as it would be to charge the medical men in the city of Toronto with the increasing death rate from trolley car and bicycle accidents. As the Public School is only one of the factors educating the child, we must examine the other influences to locate the cause of criminality.

The child is only a comparatively

short time under the teacher's supervision. Look at the influences that are frequently thrown around the child when he is not in the teacher's charge, and the impropriety of charging the criminality upon the teacher will be evident. In fact it is the recognition of how well the Public School performs its special work, that leads many parents to desire to relegate to it the work of home and Sunday School. We may look to the teachers who have done their part so successfully to make an effort to secure a greater co-ordination of the forces of home, Sunday School and Public School. The teachers should endeavor to reach the parents and arouse parental solicitude and co-operation.

The Sunday School could be greatly improved by the adoption in it of methods that have been so successful in the Public School. The kindergarten element in the Public School might be greatly extended, so that there should be no more neglected waifs running at large on the back streets. It should not be forgotten that one of the fundamental principles of the kindergarten is that the mothers should be taught to be the true kindergartners.

Lastly, let it be remembered that the majority of the unregenerated are not in that condition from want of knowledge of what is better and nobler, but from want of moral responsiveness to recognized right and duty. The teacher's work will not be in vain if he succeed in strengthening and developing the moral natures of his pupils, habituating them to loyal and willing response to the claims of right and righteousness, and in this most important work the teacher's own character and example is the mightiest factor.

Give us teachers, the nation should cry. Its usual call is for cheap teaching. But there is one educator who counteracts the blindness of trustees

and the indifference of parents—the child. The child teaches the teacher. The very presence of these eager young innocent minds looking up to the teacher for guidance and example stirs him to noblest endeavor.

How could he deceive or injure these confiding little ones? His nature, if it has a spark of manliness or nobility, responds to this appeal, and thus it is that the teachers become

the most sensitive to moral demands. The teacher from day to day learns to realize more and more that his work is not to “keep school,” or prepare pupils for examinations, but to aid in that spiritual process whereby human souls are strengthened, developed, uplifted and ennobled.

That to perfection's sacred height
They nearer still may rise,
And all they think and all they do
Be pleasing in God's eyes.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

BY PRES. LEVI SEELEY,

State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.

FURTHER INVESTIGATIONS.

I HAVE given, thus far, statements of opinion which, coming as they do from such eminent persons, are entitled to respect; yet they must be regarded somewhat as generalizations and theories. There are statistics at hand, however, which verify the positions taken by the majority, and which show a more alarming condition of things than even the most pessimistic fear. According to calculations based upon the last report of the Commissioner of Education, there were in 1896, 20,865,377 children in the United States between the ages of five and eighteen. Of these it is safe to say that about 1,600,000 are of Catholic parentage. Inasmuch as the report of the Sunday School Union does not include Catholic children, and as many of the Catholic children receive religious instruction in the parochial school and in the church, we may subtract this number from the total, which leaves 19,200,000 children. Now the total number of Sunday School scholars of all ages, according to the report of the Sunday School Union for

the United States in the year 1896, was 10,890,092. It is well known, however, that the statistics of Sunday School scholars include children under five and adults over eighteen. There are no statistics upon this point; but, suppose we allow twelve per cent. of the total number to be included in these two classes—a conservative estimate, I think. This number must be subtracted from the total number of Sunday School scholars in order to make a comparison with those included in Commissioner Harris's report, which refers only to children from five to eighteen. We shall have then about 9,500,000 children from five to eighteen years of age in the Sunday School, or a little less than fifty per cent. of all the children of our country. The meaning of these figures is simply overwhelming. More than one-half of the children in this Christian land who receive practically no religious instruction! For but few parents who fail to send their children to Sunday School are careful about the religious training of their children in

the home. Even this feature does not show all of the truth. It seems to admit that the fifty per cent. who attend Sunday School are receiving proper religious instruction; but everyone knows that this cannot be granted. With less than one hour's instruction per week, with irregular attendance, with lack of study on the part of the children, and with so many untrained teachers—is it any wonder that, even among those who attend Sunday School, there is still woeful ignorance of the Bible? I do not minimize the work that the Sunday School is now doing; but, at its best, we can never expect it to give such religious instruction as is necessary to prepare for moral living and intelligent citizenship. And the home, too, which ought to be the centre of moral and religious influence, is too prone to shift the responsibility of the spiritual instruction upon the institutions of the church, just as it shifts the responsibility of intellectual instruction upon the school.

Rosenkranz* shows very conclusively that no system of education is complete without religion. He says: "Education has to prepare man for religion in the following respects: (1) It gives him the conception of it; (2) it endeavors to have this conception realized in his life; (3) it subordinates the theoretical and practical process in adapting him to a special standpoint of religious culture." Further, "Education must, therefore, first accustom the youth to the idea that, in doing good, he unites himself with God as with the absolute Person, but that in doing evil he separates himself from him."

Religious instruction has always been recognized as the corner stone of the course of study in the German schools. Four to six hours per week are given to it throughout the entire

course. It was once my privilege to have a complete picture of the religious course in a public school in Berlin. The principal gave instruction to the teachers of the various classes to give a short lesson in "religion," illustrating the work of each class. Accordingly, I began with the lowest class and went through each of the eight classes to the highest. Beginning with stories from the Old Testament, the course led, step by step, through the various phases of Old Testament history; it gave the life of Christ and the work of His apostles; it included the chief events of church history; texts of Scripture and hymns of the church were repeated from memory; and, in the higher classes, the catechism and doctrines of the church were discussed. It seemed to me that a devout spirit prevailed among both teachers and pupils, and I may say that I have never discovered any other spirit in the religious instruction in the German common schools.

In giving the above picture I am simply describing what I saw and not committing myself to such a course for our schools. Everyone knows that some features of this course are impossible under our American conditions. I may say that, while German teachers are dissatisfied with the influence of the church in the schools, and would have all church censorship removed, all agree as to the vital importance of religious instruction in producing right character and securing a well-balanced and harmonious development; therefore no one would have it omitted. The chief objection of German educators is that pastors, who are often local school inspectors, are not pedagogically trained men. Professor Delitzsch, in his *Biblical Psychology*, says, "The heart is the deep centre of all mental and spiritual life."

I give one more quotation from the

* Philosophy of Education.

many opinions at hand in support of the belief that religious instruction is a necessary part of education. Professor John A. Hines says: "Familiarity with the Bible is worth more to the student of our best literature than familiarity with any dozen other books that could be named.

"The pupil needs chiefly:

"1. A minute knowledge of the historical facts recited in the Bible.

"2. A clear conception of the meaning of the parables and other teachings of Jesus.

"3. A memory of much of the sublime language of the poets and prophets of the two Testaments."

If, then, religious instruction is necessary to complete education, I think there is no escaping the conclusion that the State must assume some part of it in the common schools. It cannot assume the whole of it, for creeds can never be taught by the State in a country where Church and State are separated and where there are so many sects. There must never be admitted into the public school any influence that gives the least color of sectarianism. It is not to be thought of, is not desired, nor is it necessary in order to produce the end which must be sought. We have seen that not one-half of the children are taught those things so essential to good citizenship and a happy and useful life. The institutions that are now attempting this work are not succeeding, and never can fully succeed. There is only one institution that reaches all the children, and that is the public school.

Why should not the State teach the history and literature of the Bible as well as its moral lessons? Why exclude sacred history and literature and admit every other history and literature? We teach the sublime thoughts of Cicero, Shakespeare or

Emerson, and may not introduce those of David, Isaiah, or Paul. We familiarize the children with the deeds of Alexander, Cæsar, or Napoleon, but must be silent concerning Moses, Joshua or Jesus. There need be no sectarianism in this teaching. Read John W. Hall's article on Bible Study in the November (1897) *Educational Review*, and see if it is not possible to teach the Bible without offence to anyone. Put all the safeguards you please to prevent sectarian teaching, but give to the child that which is his inherent right—namely, the best education possible.

It cannot be, in this age of tolerance and intelligence, that there is not a common platform of literary, historic and moral teaching founded directly upon the Bible upon which Catholic and Protestant, Jew and Christian, Orthodox and Liberal can stand in our public schools. They, and they alone, can supply this vital deficiency in our educational practice; and I believe that parents would welcome such instruction, could they be assured of its non-sectarian character.

Some may object to the term "religious" as applied to the instruction thus outlined, claiming that it is simply ethical. I am not a stickler for terms, but prefer the term used, even with instruction so limited, as it will inspire respect, awaken reverence, and prepare the way for the deeper spiritual truths that the home and the church must add. With the literature, history and moral lessons of the Bible well taught in the public school, these other agencies could devote themselves to the more specific doctrinal and spiritual lessons which must be excluded from the State schools. And would not such religious instruction in the day school be an excellent preparation for the further necessary instruction on the part of the church and the home?

The Rev. Thomas Bouquillon,

an eminent Catholic priest, says: * "Education: to whom does it belong? is the question with which we started out. We now make answer: It belongs to the individual, physical or moral, to the family, to the State, to the Church; to none of these solely and exclusively, but to all four combined in harmonious working, for the reason that man is not an isolated but a social being. Precisely in the

* In a pamphlet entitled "Education: to whom does it belong?"

harmonious combination of these four factors in education is the difficulty of practical application."

The home, the Church, the State—each has its duty to perform in the education of the child; and if each will perform that duty, the result will be an American citizen pure, holy, intelligent and patriotic—a man loving his country, his God, and his fellow-man as he loves himself, and one who believes and practises righteousness. —*Educational Review.*

THE TEACHER'S COMMISSION.

W. A. McINTYRE, M.A. *

"How dull it is to pause, to make an end,
To rust unburnished, not to shine in use,
As tho' to breathe were life. Life piled on life
Were all too little, and of one, to me
Little remains; but every hour is saved
From that eternal silence; something more,
A bringer of new things; and vile it were
For some three suns, to store and hoard myself,
And this gray spirit yearning in desire
To follow knowledge like a sinking star,
Beyond the utmost bound of human thought."

FOR those who feel within their hearts an echo to these words, I have a thought to-day; to those content to sit in slothful ease, I cannot speak. The living soul is he who strives and hopes and yearns for greater things; but he is dead who is the slave to thoughtless custom and routine. My message is for those

who live. A sermon you may call it if you will; to me it will be but a meditation.

I have this day received a commission, than which none could be more delicate, none more important, none more sacred. I have been entrusted with the duty of moulding the lives and shaping the destinies of forty of God's little ones. Surely this is a wonderful trust; surely in accepting it, I may feel that I have been honored above my worth, exalted beyond my station. Honored? Yes, but more than honored. I am possessed of a holy fear. Exalted? Yes, but more than exalted. I am humbled when I consider mine own insufficiency. What if I should misdirect these lives? What if I should establish in these young minds wrong ideals? What if I should fail to develop those habits and tastes, and those powers of being that are necessary to noble existence? What if I destroy rather than edify? What if I crush out rather than foster those feelings and aspirations that should be the property of every living soul?

* Principal Normal School, Winnipeg.

Yet, with all my imperfections and with all my fears, I have taken upon me the burden of ministering to the needs of these little ones—little ones who have also their imperfections and their fears ; and as I lend myself to my labor, I can hear the words of that brave man hero, the Sage of Chelsea, who though he sometimes spake harshly, yet always spake with sincerity and with power of conviction : “Blessed is he who has found his work, let him ask no other blessedness. He has a work, a life purpose ; he has found it and will follow it. How, as a free-flowing channel, dug and torn by noble force through the sour mud-swamp of one’s existence, like an ever-deepening river there, it runs and flows, draining off the sour festering water, gradually, from the root of the remotest grass blade ; making instead of pestilential swamp, a green, fruitful meadow with its clear-flowing stream.”

A work then, I have, a noble work, but yet a perilous. From no School Board have I received my call ; from no Department have I received my authority. I have heard a voice—it is the voice of my country and my God. I have perceived a need—it is the need of anxious parents, and the need of their helpless children. Oh ! for power and wisdom to do my duty now ; Oh ! for clearness of vision and for willing heart ; Oh ! for tenderness and patience and deep humility.

Would you hear my country’s call ? “I bring you here those who are my hope. I bring you the children of the wealthy and the children of the poor. I bring you those who differ in race and in language, in customs and in tendencies. I bring you the physically strong and the physically weak, the mentally sound and those to whom nature has not given a full measure of strength. I bring you my boys and my girls, who are to be the fathers and the mothers in this great

land. Will you accept them all ? Out of this heterogeneous combination can you bring unity ? Can you reconcile wealth and poverty so that the feeling of a common brotherhood will prevail ? Can you teach British, French, German, Scandinavian, Ice-lander and Pole, that in this free land all are equally worthy if unreservedly they accept the honor and perform the duties of true Canadian citizenship ? Can you rise above distinction in creed, so as to forget that we have Jew and Gentile, Catholic and Protestant ? Can you in recognizing to yourselves distinctions of every kind, so order your work that these will be not a source of separation and contention, but the very elements of strength in a nation in which the idea of brotherhood prevails ? ”

Yes ! my country—land of prairie and of mountain—my free land, my great land ; yes ! I can accept all you have brought me and all will find a place in my heart. I can take your poor and teach them to sing and feel

“The rank is but the guinea stamp,
The man’s the gowd for a’ that.”

I can teach them to say

“My mind to me a kingdom is
Such perfect joy therein I find
As far exceeds all earthly bliss
That God or nature has assigned,
Tho’ much I want that most would
have
Yet still my mind forbids to crave.

Some have too much, yet still they
crave,
I little have, yet seek no more—
They are but poor, though much they
have,
And I am rich with little store.
They poor, I rich ; they beg, I give ;
They lack, I lend ; they pine, I live.”

And I can take the children of
your rich and feed them on such food
as this :

"Then none was for the party,
 Then all were for the state,
 Then the great man helped the poor
 man,
 And the poor man loved the great;
 Then lands were fairly portioned,
 Then spoils were fairly sold
 And Romans were like brothers
 In the brave days of old."

And calling to mind the words of Him who for our sakes became poor, I can by word and act instil into their hearts that grandest of all truths: "It is more blessed to give than to receive."

I can take, too, your physically and mentally unsound and in patience and tenderness endeavor to build them up into strong and self-conscious manhood; I can take your morally deformed and "by slow degrees subdue them to the useful and the good." And buoyed up by the hope of a united people in a united land I shall welcome all nationalities, all tongues, for I know that each will contribute its quota towards the upbuilding of our national life. Aiming at my country's highest permanent good I shall endeavor to develop in each child those qualities of mind and heart which are essential to strong manhood, true womanhood, knowing that without these our patriotism may be but an empty feeling, a mere laudation of our past achievements. We shall delight indeed to recall the sound of arms and the waving of banners, but we shall still more delight to refresh our minds with the memories of those great and good men, those self-denying and devoted women, whose name shines as stars on the pages of history. Yes! as a teacher, I can do something for my country, and with no mean boast I hope to say "I have done my State some service, and they know it."

But not alone from my country do I receive my call to service. In all

true work, were it but true hand-labor, there is something of divineness. The Highest God, as I understand it, does audibly so command me, still audibly if I have ears to hear. He, even He, with his *un*-spoken voice, awfuller than any Sinai thunders or syllabled speech of whirlwinds; for the *Silence* of deep eternities, or worlds from beyond the morning stars, does it not speak to me? The unborn Ages; the old Graves, with their long-mouldering dust, the very tears that wetted it now all dry—do not these speak to me, what ear hath not heard? The deep Death-kingdoms, the Stars in their never-resting courses, all Space and all Time proclaim it in continual silent admonition—"I, too, if ever man should, shall work while it is to-day, for the night cometh wherein no man can work."

And what a work is mine! In God's name to infuse young lives with noble and holy purpose, in His name to develop all reverence and humility. Let me then get now and again and ever, away from the idea of doing a fair day's work for a fair day's wages, away from the worship of books and marks and endless vortices of examinations, and rise to the grandeur of my commission. *The beginning and end and centre of my efforts is the welfare of the little child. And all true welfare looks towards the eternities—the eternities of faith and hope and love.* And these are the only eternities. "For whether there be prophecies they shall fail; and whether there be tongues they shall cease; and whether there be knowledge it shall vanish away. . . . But now *abideth* faith, hope, charity, these three."

But there are other voices yet to join in the call to service. With brawny arm and coal-blackened face the father comes leading the treasures of his home. "All day and every day,

and all the days, I toil and labor that happiness and comfort may be the lot of these my children. My hammer rings upon the anvil; the bright steel twists and turns, and fiery showers fill the air; the wheezing bellows puff and blow; and the furnace leaps in living flames; yet my arm tires not and my ardor does not cease. What to me is labor, what is toil, what the sweat-drops and the numbing pain? The hardships I have known must not be known to these, or they must suffer in a milder form; their lives must take a wider range, their joys be of a higher kind. Lead them out then into a nobler manhood. Widen their knowledge, elevate their tastes; lead them to purer springs and ward them from the pitfalls that beset the path of youth. Self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control, these would I have them learn, so that when they reach the man's estate, they may go forth to meet the world as equals of the highest—not as slaves who cannot think, and choose and act."

The mother, too, with earnest pleading face, brings forth her jewels. "At midnight's hour my tears have moistened the warm cheeks of these my helpless little ones; my evening prayer has borne them to the throne of God, that He might guide and bless them all the way. My days are spent in planning for their happiness and peace, my nights in thinking of their faults and their misdeeds. Help me then to lead them to the truth. When they go wrong be patient and be kind, they are but human, and being human they are born to err. In the name of Him, who blessed them when they came to meet his loving gaze, lead thou their footsteps into proper ways. No knowledge and not power do I wish, but simply this, that they may know a purer and a truer life."

What then can I say to these appeals? In my heart I know what

should be said. I may not make them scholars, let me make them men; I may not make them learned, let me make them pure. All that is beautiful and true and good; all that is merciful and mild and lovely; all that is refining and ennobling and instructive I shall place before their minds. To quicken the intellect; to broaden the sympathy; to develop the will; to cultivate good manners; to stimulate right tastes; to encourage noble and unselfish action; to enrich thought and to perfect the power of expression—these must be my aims. And with such aims, woe is me, if I sink to the level of a tyrant hired drudge, who measures his tasks by hours, and who knows not but to drive and force, and hurry through the dull routine of hearing lessons and imposing tasks. Once again, let me say it: "Above books and creeds, above methods and devices, above programmes of study and final examinations, above selfishness of parents and ambition of teachers, above business necessities and above dollars and cents, stands the one object of consideration in the school, the little child. His good is the only good; for him the school with all that pertains to it, most properly exists."

But this is not all. My country, my God, and the parents have spoken. In articulate speech have they made their wishes known. Now I feel the touch of a hand, and eyes that speak what no tongue could utter, are lifted in trust and hope to mine, and if I could express in words the meaning of their gaze, I know that never more would this my calling seem unworthy, never more would teaching be an occupation soulless or an endless drudge. "I am ignorant; cause me to know. I have bad habits; rectify them. I am weak; give me power. I am rugged; make me mild. I am crude; give me finish. I am of the

earth, earthy ; give me a taste for higher things. I move in a narrow world ; broaden my conceptions. Lead me out into the world of nature so that I may sympathize with all its beauty and perceive in it the hand of God ; lead me out into the world of man, so that I may make mine own, the thoughts of the good and great of all time. Do not strive to mould me into shape as a potter moulds his clay, but through self-activity cause me to reach out and on, towards a fuller, freer life. Let me not settle down to inaction, or a life of indolent ease, but teach me so that this will be my thought :

‘ Man am I grown, a man’s work must I do.

Follow the deer ? Follow the Christ, the king.

Live pure, speak true, right wrong, follow the king,

Else, wherefore born ? ’ ”

Yes, my child. Tenderly shall I undertake this task. To lead you upward will be my constant task and my only thought. Right ideals—constantly widening ideals, shall I place before you, ideals of thought and speech and action, so that you and I together may feel that we have understood what the poet meant when he said :

“ Build thee more stately mansions,
O my soul,

As the swift seasons roll !

Leave thy low-vaulted past !

Let each new temple, nobler than the last,

Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast

Till thou at length art free,

Leaving thine outgrown shell by life’s unresting sea.”

Oh ! brother teacher, say you this is all too fine—that teaching is at best

but soulless work ? In vain then spake the master-teacher when he said :

“ I determined that there should not be a moment in the day when my children should not be aware from my face and my lips that my heart was theirs, that their happiness was my happiness, and their pleasures my pleasures.

“ We wept and smiled together. They forgot the world and their neighborhood ; they only knew that they were with me, and I with them. We shared our food and drink. I had about me neither family, friends nor servants ; nothing but them. I was with them in sickness and health and when they slept. I was the last to go to bed and the first to get up. In the bedroom I prayed with them, and at their own request taught them till they fell asleep.”

In vain too were those noble words penned by him who gave us for our consolation and inspiration the “ Day-dreams : ”

“ And O, brother schoolmaster, remember evermore the exceeding dignity of your calling. It is not the holiest of all callings, but it runs near and parallel to the holiest. We have usually to deal with fresh and unpoluted natures. We are dressers in a moral and mental vineyard. We are undershepherds of the Lord’s little ones ; and our business is to lead them into green pastures, and by the sides of refreshing streams. Let us into our linguistic lessons introduce cunningly and imperceptibly all kinds of amusing stories ; stories of the real kings of earth that have reigned crownless and unsceptred, leaving the vain show of power to gilded toy-kings, and make-believe statesmen ; of the angels that have walked the earth in the guise of holy men and holier women ; of the seraph singers whose music will be echoing forever ; of the cherubim of power, that with

the mighty wind of conviction and enthusiasm have winnowed the air of pestilence and superstition."

Yes, friend, throw a higher poetry than this into your linguistic work ; the poetry of pure and holy motive. Then in the coming days, when you are fast asleep under the green grass, they will not speak lightly of you over their fruit and wine, mimicking your accent and retailing dull, insipid boy-pleasantries. Enlightened with the experience of fatherhood, they will see with a clear remembrance your firmness in dealing with their moral faults, your patience in dealing with their intellectual weakness ; and calling to mind the old school room they will think, " Ah ! it was good for us to be there. For unknown to us were made therein three tabernacles ; one for us, and one for our schoolmaster, and one for Him that is the Friend of all children and the Master of all schoolmasters.

" Ah ! believe me, brother mine, where two or three children are met together, unless He who is the Spirit of gentleness be in the midst of them, then our Latin is but sounding brass and our Greek a tinkling cymbal."

Now, my brother in the work, do you not admit in your heart that these men are right ? Is not life itself the greatest thing in life, and is not our one supreme duty to the child to cause him to truly live ? " I am come that they might have life, and that they might have it more abundantly." Then why not live up to our conception ? Are we slaves to custom and routine that we need work towards a less worthy end ? I am indeed sorry for him who has a limited view of his work, but I am impatient with him who admits the greater aim, but who by his actions gives the lie to his utterances. Let us out of the low-vaulted past. Let us rise on stepping-stones of our dead selves to higher things. Most of us have worked

side by side for many years. We all have our failings. Yet let us forget all these and think only of what yet remains to be done. I began by quoting from Ulysses, will you let me close by quoting from the same poem ? The thought is not wholly suitable, but ye who yearn will find the inspiration you require :

" My mariners,
Souls that have toiled and wrought
and thought with me—
That ever with a frolic welcome took
The thunder and the sunshine, and
opposed
Free hearts, free foreheads—You and
I are old :
Old age hath yet his honor and his
toil ;
Death closes all ; but something ere
the end,
Some work of noble note, may yet be
done,
Not unbecoming men that strove with
gods.
The light begins to twinkle from the
rocks,
The long day wanes, the slow moon
climbs, the deep
Moans round with many voices.
Come, my friends,
'Tis not too late to seek a newer
world.
Push off, and setting well in order,
smite
The sounding furrows ; for my purpose
holds
To sail beyond the sunset, and the
baths
Of all the western stars, until I die.
It may be that the gulfs will wash us
down ;
It may be we will touch the Happy
Isles,
And see the great Achilles, whom we
knew.
Tho' much is taken, much abides ;
and tho'
We are not now that strength which
in old days

Moved earth and heaven : that which
we are, we are ;
One equal temper of heroic hearts,

Made weak by time and fate, but
strong in will [yield."
To strive, to seek, to find, and not to

THE NEUHOF EXPERIENCE.

DR. J. M. HARPER, M.A.

THE first period of Pestalozzi's active life opens with sunshine—the sunshine of courtship and marriage. Turning over in his mind the knowledge he had acquired during his sojourn in the country, with a mind brimming over with new ideas on the subject of farming, his eye at length fell upon a parcel of ground not far from the village of Birr, whereon he might begin operations. The land was as poor as any that had ever been turned with a Swiss plow. But this in Pestalozzi's eyes was only something in its favor. It could be had at a very low figure, and was capable of being improved. Besides, under a process of which he had certain knowledge, madder could be grown on land of this character as well as on the most fertile soil. At length he succeeded in inducing a Zurich firm to advance the money for the purchase of the place, and not long after, in his twenty-first year, he is found at work building a home for himself and her whom he proposed to take home as his wife. There is one of his letters still extant, in which the manner of his wooing is set forth in terms which would hardly be considered warm enough, perhaps, by the maidens of our times; yet it gives an insight into his early character and the honesty with which he understood it. But space forbids its publication here. Suffice it to say that two years after this philosophic wooer had settled at NeuhoF, the courtship thus begun culminated in marriage,—an unequal match, as many of his neighbors

said, she having money and personal attractions, he being notably deficient in both. For fifty years they lived together as man and wife, nor is there a hint in any of Pestalozzi's autobiographical notes which leads us to think that Madame Pestalozzi ever rued her bargain, notwithstanding the clouds that began to press closer and closer around their married life as the months lengthened into years.

"Let a man take up his cross and follow me," are the words of One, whose cross, notwithstanding the Divine strength that stayed it, was, at times, almost more than He could bear. *Take up and follow!* But what agony is there to the man who takes the cross up, bears it with all his strength of body, soul and spirit, bows beneath its weight, and finds that for the time being there is for him no following of the good that is within him. Hemmed in on all sides by a relentless environment, he has taken up, but cannot follow. The light is on his path, he sees the way wherein he should walk, he sees far ahead the regeneration of society, which he thinks he might work out in part at least; but around him, near him, there are the human besettings that make his cross an all but unbearable weight. Such was Pestalozzi's case, as the clouds grew darker and darker around his NeuhoF fireside. The farm was a failure, as many of his patiently wise friends had prophesied. The crop of madder was not the golden harvest the Zurich firm had expected, and, as is usual in the case

of misfortune, rumors of various kinds began to be circulated against the poor enthusiast farmer. He was not over-diligent. He was too much of a dreamer, full of theories, with nothing of the practical about him. He wasn't a good-for-nothing, but he was almost as bad. In fact he ought never to have taken to farming. And so, with such rumors like these, and even worse than these, buzzing around its ears, the Zurich firm at last called for better results. But Pestalozzi, with a year to think over the matter, had nothing to give but further promises; and, at last, the firm ordered an examination into the affairs of the farm. The report was adverse. If there was nothing found wrong, there was a suspicion abroad that something was wrong. The advances stopped, and the want of money began to be felt around Neuhoſ; and yet Pestalozzi did not see the end of his project in the chagrin of his financial supporters. He confesses that the failure was his own. His profound incapacity for the practical, he declares, was the origin of the small returns that made the Zurich firm turn its back upon the enterprise; and yet, so strongly was he convinced of the correctness of his judgment, that he continued on the farm until the whole of his wife's property was irretrievably lost.

No man can read Pestalozzi's autobiographical notes without remarking the influence which Rousseau's writings began to have at this time upon his life and character. Many of his confessions are given in the spirit of Jean Jacques himself; and perhaps it is well for us that he has spoken so freely of his own affairs, since we now all the better understand his character. And if any of Rousseau's books left a more lasting impression on the unlucky farmer of Neuhoſ than another, it was his *Emile*, a work which even yet has an impression

upon our educationists and the bent of their experiments. After reading this work, he thought of starting, in connection with his farm, a school for the poor, proposing thereby to provide labor for his farm, and an education for the outcasts of his neighborhood. The suffering of the poor had never been from his mind. He was a philanthropist from the moment he could think for himself; and he saw an outlet for his philanthropy, as he thought, in becoming a teacher.

And yet other men, less enthusiastic than this poor builder of air-castles, would have paused in their efforts to help others, by contemplating their own limited resources. Even before the school for the poor was started, the deepest gloom had struck Neuhoſ and its enterprises, and for more than twenty years it never thinned out sufficiently to show much of the peep of day beyond. The weight of the cross here fell upon the enthusiast,—the soul-struggle amid the misunderstandings of a critical environment,—the wrestling with the angel for the blessing. What his poverty was at this time may be learned from the fact, which he himself states, that more than a thousand times he was obliged to go without his dinner, and at noon, when even the poorest were seated round the table, he had to devour a morsel of bread on the highway. And when the man who could endure all this and yet minister to the wants of the poor, in order to give root to the philanthropy within him—for in spite of all his difficulties he continued to give shelter to the outcasts in his neighborhood, looking after their mental and moral improvement,—when such a man, encompassed about with every evil of poverty, breaks down at times, our pity for him, as our admiration for his work, surely can easily find for him an excuse. As he says himself: "Deep dissat-

isfaction was gnawing my heart. Eternal truth and eternal rectitude were converted by my passion to airy castles. My head was grey, yet I was still a child. With a heart in which all the foundations of life were shaken, I still pursued in these stormy times my favorite object, but my way was one of prejudice, of passion and of error."

And for twenty years, even for more than twenty years, did this gnawing process go on. A quarter of a century is a short time when it is passed; yet, what a space it is taken out of the span of a man's life! What an eternity it must have been to the man who had taken up but could not follow! What a weary period to him who was anxious to receive the spirit-sanctification of the troubled waters; to be of those who find themselves blessed while laboring for the national good of their fellow men! "Have I a mission?" is the cry of the soul as it awakens within the atmosphere of credulity and conventionality that ever tends to belittle humanity; and what must have been the agony of the man who knew he had a mission, but who for twenty-five years was unable to fulfil it.

And yet, what is now our regret for such agony of spirit endured? The pains of history-making in the man are as readily forgotten as are the throes of war by a nation exulting in victory, as readily as is physical pain by the child whose smile of joy is even yet wet with tears. Even Pestalozzi himself has no regret for the agonies of Neuhoef in his after triumphs of success. For from the gloom of this, his early experience, there broke forth the light of a new experience, which he knew would make more for the world in time than it would in his days,—the light and influence of the primary school, and an improved system of imparting instruction. The pains of Neuhoef were but the accom-

paniment of the birth, or rather 'the re-birth, of the new education,—the birth of a movement which has at last spread all over the world, which produced for us a Stowe in Scotland and a Horace Mann in America, or, coming nearer home, a Forrester in Nova Scotia, and a Ryerson in Ontario. And as we see this beneficent light waxing stronger and stronger under the prudent guidance of our present educational forces, as we see its rays darting amid the clouds of school-neglect, and indifference to child culture which has been for long a reproach to us, it is surely meet for us to celebrate the praises of the man, the poor Swiss farmer, who suffered that humanity might gain, who humbled himself that humanity might be exalted.

And what a school was this, the first of Pestalozzi's ventures as a teacher! Fifty outcasts to be housed and clothed and boarded by him who had not wherewithal to clothe himself and his own family. As has been said of it: "In this new enterprise Pestalozzi was even more unsuccessful than he had in growing madder. He was very badly treated both by parents and children; and his industrial experiments were so carried on, that they were a source of expense rather than profit. Indeed, he was soon involved in debt, and his wife's property scattered to the winds."

From his experiments, however, with these outcasts, Pestalozzi began to see the light of which he was afterwards to be a witness. His school for the poor was a failure; and at last from the education of children the reformer turned to the education of ideas. He began to write.

The British press sustains Lord Salisbury in the position he has taken that Thessaly shall be evacuated by the Turkish troops whether the \$25,000,000 indemnity is paid or unpaid.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Deliver not the tasks of might
 To weakness, neither hide the ray
 From those, not blind, who wait for
 day,
 Tho' sitting girt with doubtful light.

"That from Discussion's lips may fall
 With Life, that, working strongly
 binds—
 Set in all lights by many minds,
 So close the interests of all."

THE reference which was made in a late number of the CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY to farming and the unaccountable trend of young people to leave the farm for centres of population has had the effect of directing very special attention to the subject. No class of men has better opportunities of seeing what is going on in the country than the Inspectors of our Public Schools. In this number of the magazine Inspector J. H. Knight, Lindsay, gives advice to our farmers. We are pleased that he has taken the matter in hand.

The meeting of the Ontario Educational Association last month was a good one. The attendance of members was large; great activity in all the departments of the Association was shown, and many valuable papers read in the different sub-departments. The fact now is that a visitor is at a loss where to attend, and wherever he may be, is sure to miss some good paper read in some other sub-department. Iron sharpeneth iron, saith the wise man, and this is true in a special degree of the teacher; he feels animated and stimulated by contact with others engaged in the same work. The paper read by Professor Hale, of Chicago, on the importance and value of humanistic studies, is worthy of note, as showing that the classics are having their claims set forth for continued recognition in any scheme of liberal education, and that by capable men who are themselves students of the sciences. The paper

by Principal McCabe, Ottawa Normal School, was most timely. Prof. Clark, Trinity, carried on the same subject in the evening in a capital address, dwelling on points not referred to by Dr. McCabe. The Professor's advice to teachers was to be, and continue to be, learners. The importance of forming habits in the child, even before it was possible to communicate the principles on which they were based, was insisted upon by various speakers. Our readers have an opportunity this month of appreciating the paper presented by Professor Hume.

Mr. Jordan, who was called on to preside at the public meetings of the convention, on account of the death of the much-missed the late Mr. Munro, Ottawa, received well merited praise for the efficient manner in which he performed the duties of the chair. The public reception was a new feature this year. The speakers were the Lieutenant - Governor, Sir Oliver Mowat, His Worship Mayor Shaw, and the Minister of Education, Hon. G. W. Ross. His Worship Mayor Shaw cordially invited the members of the Association to view the beauties of Toronto, for which purpose the city corporation made ample provision on Thursday afternoon, and many availed themselves of the city's kind offer.

The subject which engaged the attention of the Association this year most seriously was the over-supply of

teachers and their low salaries. Year after year the number of teachers licensed was far more than there were vacant positions; the natural result followed, undue and unseemly competition. Experienced teachers were driven out of their schools and their places taken by young men and young women who do not know what life means. The remedy proposed is raise the age limit to 21 years, and let no more primary certificates be issued. No doubt the tendency of this proposal will be in the right direction. But it seems to us that it is high time to fix a minimum salary and that the length of service should be considered in this question of salary. We were glad to see that the trustees were alive to the gravity of the question as well as the teachers. And well they may, for it is the whole country which suffers the loss caused by the unsatisfactory supply of teaching power.

It has sometimes been urged as an objection to the introduction of religious teaching in our public schools, that it would be unfair to the teachers who had entered into no such engagement. If any have been influenced by such an argument, they would have been considerably surprised by the utterances at the recent meeting of the Ontario Educational Association. At a meeting of public school teachers held on the Thursday morning, teacher after teacher got up and repudiated the idea of their schools being irreligious or non-religious, contending that a considerable amount of religious instruction was imparted in them.

This is certainly quite an agreeable phenomenon as contrasted with what is said to have happened at the Ministerial Association in this same city of Toronto. We have not a complete or exact report before us, and, if we are misrepresenting the reverend body, we shall be sorry and

make our apologies; but we understand that an opinion was expressed that religious teaching could not be had in our schools. We wish those reverend gentlemen could have heard the words spoken by certain teachers of our public schools, and received with apparently unanimous approval by all who were present.

It was contended with great force that on literary, historical and moral grounds, religious instruction was necessary, and should be given. A great part of our literature would be unintelligible without some knowledge of the Bible; and it was complained that the map of Palestine had been removed from the recent editions of the school geography. We think the complaint was well founded; but that is not the point at present. The teachers evidently disapproved of the changes as preventing them from giving instruction respecting Bible lands.

Then it was urged that the history of Palestine and of the Hebrew people was not only an essential and important part of the history of the world, at least as important as that of Greece and Rome; but more nearly connected with our own intellectual, moral and social history, to such an extent indeed that no satisfactory account could be given of that state of civilization to which we belong without taking account of Hebrew history.

So also in regard to the moral discipline of the young, it was held that nothing better could be taught as a basis for such instruction than the Ten Commandments. Not a word was uttered in regard to any difficulties in the way. The teachers felt and said that there were difficulties in the way of denominational education, but they were not aware of any in the way of religious education; and indeed, as we have said, they declared that such instruction was actually given in most of our schools.

This reminds us of the old dilemma of the impossibility of motion and the old answer : " *Solvitur ambulando* "—we do actually move. Religious instruction cannot be given ; but it is given. If only the clergy of all denominations would co-operate to the extent of their power with the teachers, instead of arguing the subject as an abstract question, they might bring about a much more satisfactory state of things in our schools.

The Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction of the Province of Quebec, at its last meeting, which as the newspapers said, was thinly attended, matured certain regulations to guide the re-organized Central Board of Examiners, and discussed the proposed changes in the course of study. The intensifying of the course seems to be in the wind in Quebec, as elsewhere, and it must sound strange to many of our readers who have heard so much of the inefficiency of the elementary education of that province to read the following :—" The other business of the meeting was principally routine, and consisted of work upon the revision of the course of study in the Protestant schools. In consequence of the elevation of the course of study at McGill University, it has been found necessary to raise that at the public schools, leading up to it for matriculation and other purposes. Not only will this necessitate the possible introduction of new subjects and the raising of the present ones, but it will be found more convenient to have some subjects, such as writing, bookkeeping, etc., removed from the list of those coming under control of the Government Board of School Examiners, and left instead to the discretion of school teachers."

A deputation of the Roman Catholic Teachers' Association of the

district of Montreal waited on the provincial ministers some time ago, in connection with the proposal that a teacher should be given a place on the Roman Catholic Committee of the Council of Public Instruction. Inspector Demers, president, and Messrs. Brisbois, secretary, Archambault, of the Roman Catholic Commissioners' schools, and Inspector Lippens were among the number. The matter was discussed at some length, the ministers recognizing the importance of raising the prestige and position of the teachers, and, apparently, being impressed by the arguments laid before them. The Association of the Protestant Teachers have a representative on the Protestant Committee, and considering the progress of education during the incumbency of the late representative, Mr. N. T. Truell of Lachute Academy, the Roman Catholic teachers show no imprudence in their late action.

In connection with Mr. Truell's work on the Protestant Committee, nothing but the highest praise can be given, and, while it is said that many of the members of the Board miss him in their deliberations, the teachers cannot but regret his withdrawal from office, through the machinations of the " slate " manufacturers of the last convention. A man is good for an office as long as he continues to do good work ; and no one can deny that Mr. Truell's work, while on the Protestant Committee, was marked by a shrewdness and perseverance acknowledged even by those who must have felt that they were sinning against even their own easy sense of right and justice, when they pre-arranged the election of his successor. From all that is being said, the teachers are likely to find how necessary it is to have a man true to their interests on the Committee.

With such a man as Mr. Truell, a practical teacher and an enthusiastic educationist, the Roman Catholic Committee would be brought more and more in touch with the necessities of the country districts, and those who know the members of the deputation personally are fully convinced that a man of Mr. Truell's usefulness will be found among the members of the Association of Roman Catholic Teachers, when the opportunity arises to elect one of themselves as representative on the Roman Catholic Committee of the Council of Public Instruction.

The following is taken from one of our newspapers, and ought perhaps to be read under the expectation that further amendments and explanations will follow :

The Catholic University of Manitoba, according to the *Mouvement Catholique*, is prepared to agree to the following compromise on the Manitoba school question :

1. Permission to teach accorded for two years from 1898 (four years for the members of the teaching communities) to teachers non-employed in the Catholic schools and to other competent persons, upon the recommendation of the Catholic Inspector of the Catholic schools.

2. A ten weeks' course for the training of teachers of the Catholic schools, under the direction of professors appointed by the Department of Public Instruction, but acceptable to the Archbishop of St. Boniface. The Catholic Inspector, or some one he may suggest, and one of the representatives of St. Boniface College in the University Council will form a portion of the faculty giving this normal course which is to be held in an establishment approved of by the Archbishop. It has been suggested that the boys follow this course at

the College of St. Boniface, and the girls at Ste. Mary's Academy.

3. Special licenses for French and German schools and examinations in English and French. The examiners will carry on the examinations in the establishments where the normal teaching is given and three of the representatives of St. Boniface College will form a part of the examining commission.

4. The nomination for Catholic schools of an inspector, speaking French and English, and an assistant if necessary.

5. The Catholic Inspector will confer with the Archbishop regarding books in reading, history, geography and religious instructions to be employed in the Catholic schools.

6. The four Catholic schools of Winnipeg will all be leased by the School Board, and the teachers now employed therein will be considered as forming the proportionate number to be employed by virtue of the amendments of 1896, providing these schools accept the official inspection made by the Catholic Inspector.

The Provincial Normal School of Manitoba can report progress again this year with a large increase in its numbers. This is due partly to the regulation lately adopted by the Department of Education, which comes into force before another normal session will be held, that candidates for a second-class professional certificate must already be holders of a third-class professional and have taught a certain length of time. In addition, the Department not anticipating a very large attendance at the first-class session which has previously been held after the second-class, decided to combine the two and give a mixed session in order to accommodate the extra large number applying for admission. Over fifty first-class teachers made application, and in

order to handle the increased numbers the library has been fitted up and is being used as a lecture room. This session will be marked by the introduction of a model class. This class is in charge of a teacher under whose direction the students teach, while most of the actual teaching is done by the Normal students. The 1898 class is composed of about 160 members, sixty of whom are first-class and the remainder seconds. The candidates for first class professional certificates include fourteen graduates of city colleges. By far the greater number of the fifty-four are residents of the city, while many of the second-class candidates are also from Winnipeg.

In the annual report of the McGill University suitable reference is made to the generosity of the Chancellor, the Rt. Honourable Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, in undertaking the foundation of a new chair of Zoology; to the bequest of \$100,000 by the late Mr. Molson, as an endowment fund "for general purposes;" and to the munificent gift of \$225,000 by Mr. W. C. McDonald, as an auxiliary fund to provide for any deficiency in the income of endowments established by himself, in addition to donations of \$50,000 to found a new chair of Chemistry, and \$50,000 for the further endowment of the Faculty of Law.

While the politicians of Quebec are anxious to sever McGill University from the general system of the province by taking away the grant it receives from the Superior Education Fund, this is what the Governors say in their report: "The University is at the present moment conspicuously in need of further financial assistance, in order to bring the revenue to an equality with the expenditure. To accomplish this, a sum of not less than \$400,000 is urgently needed, and

there is no way in which the friends of the University can more effectively promote its welfare than by securing such a contribution to its General Funds. Without such assistance the Board feels that the University will be very seriously handicapped in the effort to go forward with the educational work which makes ever-increasing demands upon its resources."

There seems to be some doubt about the success of the Matriculation and Leaving Examinations in New Brunswick, at least the Superintendent's has to say the following about them: "In view of the comparatively small numbers who annually present themselves for the Matriculation and Leaving Examinations, the question may be fairly asked whether the advantages gained are commensurate with the time, labor and expense requisite to prepare papers, supervise the examinations, and examine and tabulate the results. It is hoped that under the provisions of the revised regulation, which allows the awarding of the County Scholarships to depend on the Departmental examinations in July, instead of the Supplementary examinations in October, a much larger number of candidates for Matriculation will hereafter present themselves at the earlier date. But, even if these expectations be not realized, it may be fairly claimed that the educative value of the Departmental examinations, even with only thirty or forty candidates for Matriculation may justify their continuation."

The amount of \$50,000 was voted by the Flynn Government in the Province of Quebec, and from the Superintendent's report we learn what is being done with the money. That report says: "Up to last year several important suggestions made by both Committees of the Council of Public Instruction, and by the school in-

spectors, had remained inoperative, owing to the insufficient appropriations voted annually for educational purposes. The sum of \$50,000 that was added last year to the usual grants has enabled certain steps to be taken, the results of which are not yet fully known, but which must before long produce a good effect. In the first place, by means of this amount of \$50,000, the annual grant to poor municipalities has been doubled; that is to say, that it has been raised from \$10,000 to \$20,000. This sum, which is of great assistance to many schools, was joyfully received by fathers of families, whose small pecuniary means compelled them to make too many sacrifices for the education of their children. An amount of \$14,000 was placed at the disposal of my Department to be given in bonuses to the lay teachers who were most successful in teaching and who most faithfully complied with the regulations of the Council of Public Instruction. This was distributed to them in sums of thirty dollars and twenty dollars, according to their respective merits; that is to say, that five per cent. of those who received the most marks in each inspection district of the Province received a bonus of \$30, and another five per cent. received a bonus of \$20."

In regard to the proposed pedagogical lectures to be given by the inspectors of Quebec, the above report also says: "Another measure adopted during the past year by the Roman Catholic Committee consists in the pedagogical lectures, which replaced the first visit paid in autumn by the inspectors to the schools of their districts. The lack of professional training in many teachers rendered these lectures necessary. Four were drawn up and published for the use of the lecturers. The teachers

were, therefore, assembled by the school inspectors in the most central spot in each municipality to hear these lectures, and the expenses incurred by them in attending these meetings will be paid out of the same grant of \$50,000 to which I have alluded." In connection with these lectures an excellent programme has been prepared by Inspector Demers, of St. Johns, which has been placed, we are told, in the hands of the Superintendent. When the programme is published we will notice the matter more fully. Inspector Demers is an educationist, enthusiastic and courageous, and much may yet be expected at his hands in improving the French schools of the Province of Quebec. The programme he has prepared covers a folio of over twenty pages, according to which must come up for discussion at the inspectors' conference all that pertains to the conducting of an efficient school. Mr. Demers' own conferences with the teachers and the tax-payers have been very successful.

The question of religious instruction in the public schools has been up before the Ministerial Association of Toronto, and as the *Presbyterian Review* has said, the conclusion practically reached by that body has attracted much attention throughout the country. This is not to be wondered at, for the Toronto ministers have lead in this question for many years, at least since the days of the Ross Bible controversy. The opinion expressed with practical unanimity by the Association is that it would be extremely difficult, if not altogether impossible, to arrange a religious programme of study which would satisfy the religious bodies concerned and which would be accepted by them. This view has been held by many thoughtful educationists who know the strong bias in some

quarters for sectarian teaching, but on the other hand the opinion has been very general, and very influentially supported, that an unsectarian syllabus would not be impossible, and in fact that such a syllabus ought to be provisionally tried.

The suggestion that a moral drill in school, well defined on the lines laid down in several articles that have appeared in our own periodical, is likely to realize results satisfactory even to the religionist, who so often wants too much religion in our schools and gets too little morality.

In these days when physical drill is receiving due attention in many of our schools, and when the alarms of war are in the air, the following letter the Earl of Meath has written to the *Times* may have a hint in it for some of our legislators or publicists, who think that the new Canadian patriotism may have an impetus from the call to arms. "When the time arrives," says the Earl, "for Lord Lansdowne to lay before Parliament his promised proposals for strengthening the military forces of the Empire, it is to be hoped that, whilst avoiding conscription and all forms of compulsion so distasteful to the Briton, he will not neglect one obvious and economical method of raising up a generation of men trained in their youth to the use of arms—I mean by the encouragement of military drill in all schools receiving pecuniary assistance from Imperial or local resources.

"There is nothing to prevent military drill being taught to-day in every National and Board school; but human nature is human nature, and managers and masters, in these days of straitened incomes and of increasing demands, as a rule avoid teaching subjects which do 'not pay' in one way or another, and military drill is at present one of these. If, however, a grant of 1s. 6d., or even of 1s.,

were made per annum to schools for each boy over eleven years of age who attended a certain number of drills under a competent instructor, and who belonged to a company of not less than fifty lads which had been certified as efficient by the district inspector of volunteers, there can be little doubt that the great majority of school authorities would include military drill in their curriculum. Drill thus learnt would never be forgotten, and in case of emergency men who had passed through this training could very quickly take their places in the ranks of their country's defenders, whether in the regular army, the militia, or the volunteers.

"The cost to the nation would be trifling. If the school grant were confined to lads over eleven years of age (*i.e.* to the fifth and higher standards), and due allowance be made for small, scattered country schools, it is not likely that more than 200,000 youths could claim the grant for their respective schools, and this at 1s. 6d. a head would amount only to 15,000*l.* a year. The money actually earned would probably amount to much less than this sum.

"I am informed by very good authority that if funds for this purpose were found by the War Office there would be no objection on the part of the Education Department to scholars from several schools uniting for the purpose of military drill, as this is provided for in the present code of education; and already other departments of State—as, for instance, the Woods and Forests and the Admiralty—make certain sporadic grants to public elementary schools; so that there is no reason why the War Office, if it thought fit, should not do the same.

"Such a comparatively small sum as 15,000*l.* a year would be insufficient to provide the nation with a single fresh battalion, but would prove

of good value if, by its expenditure, it could popularize the army, increase the number of available recruits, raise their social status, and practically obtain for the country much of the advantage of conscription without its burdens and drawbacks."

Writing on the same subject to the same paper, a clergyman says:

"It is much to be hoped that Lord Meath's letter will bear fruit, and that a special grant for drill will be made to our elementary schools. The thin end of the wedge has already been driven into the Code, as under its articles 'military drill' may 'be reckoned as time occupied' to make up the required time constituting a school attendance, and 'a teacher of drill' may be paid for out of the school income. It now only remains for those who agree with Lord Meath to drive the wedge further home and get a grant.' Allow me to add that the teachers of military drill in elementary schools would be much encouraged if every training college had a volunteer corps. Some colleges have already very smart and efficient ones. There is no reason why every training college should not maintain a strong company."

Our readers will no doubt be as gratified as we are to be told that the CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY is receiving due encouragement from those who have the cause of education at heart. The policy it has marked out for itself in its advocacies, is one which cannot but commend itself to the educationist in his anxiety to see the Dominion as a whole making the most of her educational resources as well as to the teacher in his longings for an improved pedagogic. The MONTHLY is being conducted in the interests of the public welfare, and those who conduct it will always be glad to receive from any

district or province any advice or assistance that may enhance its usefulness. The MONTHLY may be looked upon as the teacher's mouth-piece, through which he may express his honest opinions, and if his prudence favors anonymity, he may safely adopt that method in our correspondence department. Indeed, through such co-operation it is the duty of the periodical to co-ordinate outstanding opinion in such a way as to lead to the adoption of the better methods in school work, and the surer measures in educational legislation. The pleading for a quickening *esprit national* among Canadians lies at the foundation of our pleadings for improved educational facilities in all our public school systems; and if there happens at times to come into our reports a political phrase, there is at least in such a phrase no thread of partizanship, unless it be to the reader who would have it there in order to advance it, is an argument against the main question under discussion.

There is no "argument" so near the hands of some people as the "identification of him who wrote it." A congregation which lately had the worst music in the world dished up to them every Sunday from an incompetent choir, were startled out of their long-suffering by receiving as individuals through the mail the reprint of an article on church choirs which had appeared in an American periodical. There was in the article nothing personal, but the majority of the congregation saw, or thought they saw, something personal in the mailing, and within the fortnight that followed there was hardly a man or woman of any prominence in the congregation who escaped being accused of having sent the thing round. By and by, the article, when it came to be digested, led to the reorganization of the choir and an improvement in

the psalmody which was no doubt all that the distributor of the tracts had in his mind when he went to the expense of having them printed and sent through the mail, and in the same way, the good intentions of some of our correspondents have been for the moment cancelled by those who read as they run, and disapprove as they read. "I suspect who the writer is," is the logic of the man who would run the writer and his arguments into the bay if he could, and may be classed with the silliness of the young miss who thinks to disarm truth itself with a pout and a shrug. "I don't like him one bit," is, however, an anathema which no one needs fear; and our correspondents are not to think they have been in any way betrayed by us should they happen to be told by the man who knows everything that he knows all about the men and women who write for the CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

The old question of teaching as a makeshift comes to the front every now and again, and the article which Dr. Edward Everett Hale has lately placed at the disposal of one of our monthlies gives it further emphasis. "If a man be really fond of children," says Dr. Hale, "if he be quite sure of his temper and can keep it in control, let him try for a year or two, perhaps no more, the profession of a schoolmaster, since it will afford any one, while still choosing a permanent occupation, the best opportunity to study human nature, and gives quickness and versatility." These words are well enough in themselves, coming as they do from such authoritative lips, but they none the less convey a fallacy of the most dangerous kind. The teacher is made for the school and not the school for the teacher. Does the young man, with the expectation of being a lawyer, a clergyman,

or a doctor in the eye of his future, give a full *quid pro quo*, in completing such a novitiate? He may, but in the great majority of cases he does not. He may, when he gives three or four of the most energetic years of his life, not as a piece of education for his own life only, but in improving the lives of others. But he certainly does not when he enters on the work of teaching merely for the emolument that will get him through the preliminaries of "the more exalted position" he proposes for himself in the near future.

The significance of Dr. Hale's words has not been allowed to escape, but has been pointed out by one of his critics as representing a good-naturedly contemptuous attitude of mind toward the occupation of the teacher that was formerly regarded as quite proper and necessary, and that still constitutes the basis of one of the most vicious practices associated with our profession. Teaching has long been used as a stepping-stone to the other professions, and college graduates do not need to be urged to make a temporary trial of it as a convenient means for paying up undergraduate debts, or for meeting the current expenses of a course in law or medicine, or for relief from the immediate responsibility of deciding upon a profession for life. It is assumed that a young man who for the first time faces life seriously at graduation and finds himself unprepared to enter upon any distinct line of work is quite justified in working off his juvenility in the schoolroom, where the mental welfare of scores of bright children must be sacrificed to his selfish ends. This preposterous assumption that he is fitted to teach while he is fitted for nothing else, rests upon the time-honored tendency to regard teaching as an inferior profession, for which anybody is prepared who has been

associated with books; in other words, no profession at all. This form of imposture has become so common as to be generally regarded as a perfectly legitimate proceeding, while in any other profession the same sort of imposture would be regarded as an offence against the public interest and the cause of good morals. It ought to be as disreputable to engage in teaching without honest purpose and adequate preparation as to engage in preaching or the practice of medicine for two or three years, for the sake of the money and the "experience" to be gained; but it is not, and the more is the pity. The injury inflicted upon educational work by the employment of this educated incompetency—instruction with knowledge and without soul—is, of course, inestimable, and the effect upon the profession is to invite disparagement and maintain its disrepute.

And in the course of his argument the same writer says, with an emphasis which ought to be heard, in all the Canadian provinces in which provision has not yet been made for the pedagogic training of the undergraduate who contemplates being a teacher.

"Just at present there is an increasing inclination to employ college graduates as teachers. (And who else is there to take charge of the higher schools of our Canadian provinces?) The movement originated in the commendable desire to broaden the culture basis of teaching, but it is a dangerous proceeding, for it places a premium upon a college diploma, which in itself may represent little or nothing that is needful for success in teaching. A college degree is likely to bear a weight of prestige quite unwarranted by the results achieved by undisciplined degree-holders as teachers. A college course should certainly be demanded of everyone who

seriously enters the profession, but it should be regarded merely as a general foundation, not as a special preparation, for teaching. We have long had the Normal School graduate with "methods" and without knowledge; now we have the college graduate, with knowledge and without method; and the inefficiency of the one is about as great as that of the other. But the college graduate has indisputably the advantage if he possesses the one indispensable qualification of the true teacher, the quality of sincerity."

Dr. Hale's antagonist, Mr. J. W. Abernethy of Berkeley Institute, has a word to say about the true teaching and the true teacher which goes to the heart of the whole question of the kind of teacher to be employed if the school and the pupils are to have fair play. "Teaching," as he says, "it may as well be acknowledged, is not an attractive profession in a country where professional success is seldom measured by any standard other than the money standard. It is a profession of low emoluments and limited dignities; its highways are everywhere lighted by the 'lamp of sacrifice,' and its byways are trodden by the feet of many martyrs. But martyrdom has its reward. The true teacher, however, does not need even this consolation; he is as much a 'dedicated spirit' as Wordsworth was; he is a teacher by compulsion of the best elements of his nature. Three virtues must contribute to the making of good teaching, love, devotion and enthusiasm; love that leads one to choose the work freely and seriously; devotion that holds one faithful to the interests of one's pupils, to the aims of one's institution, to one's highest ideals of success; and enthusiasm that enables one to pour out knowledge hot for the moulding of young minds. And any dry-as-dust may possess knowledge, only the enthusiast can impart it with

power. The teacher cannot inspire pupils who is not himself inspired. The teaching spirit is more important than knowledge, for knowledge without the spirit to quicken it into life with true impulses will produce little or no fruit."

The college question in the Province of Quebec cannot be so readily shelved as the "men of the moment" seem to think. The activities of Stanstead and Morrin College are not likely to slacken from fear of the grant being taken away, and possibly the very irksomeness of the position these two institutions are experiencing through the action of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction, may awaken them to a newness of life. A college which issues such a life-like paper as the *Clarion* is not likely to waver in its course of providing for the section of the province in which it has held its own for so long; and when Morrin College takes heart, and makes the most of its resources, it may come to take rank, among its neighbors, as the St. Andrew's of Canada. Under the influence of the Rev. Dr. Macrae, its worthy principal, and with the éclat of its completed staff of professors, there is surely a successful future still in store for it. Though the regulations of Protestant Committee may not affect the grants given to McGill University and Bishop's College, yet the politicians, when they again come in presence of the advocacy that

thinks it no sin "to rob Peter to pay Paul," may covet the few hundred dollars that makes these institutions necessary parts of the provincial system, in order to throw it away in a direction where it can do no good. A united action on the part of these institutions may, perhaps, eventually convince the politicians that there is a right and a wrong about this as about everything else. Every system of public instruction must have its three elements, and the colleges deserve recognition as much as does the elementary school. Are the Quebec colleges inefficient, and when did they become so, would be more of an apropos question at the present time than any that have yet been asked. If any of them are, then let the inefficient go to the wall, but let the authorities foster those that are endeavoring to do good work.

Among our correspondence items this month has been inserted the letter of an antipodean who is accustomed, we are afraid, to see things upside down sometimes. We do not know what he will say when he reads about the Gill School City, which has for its object the making of each school into a miniature city, with properly elected officers and staff of workers, to teach self-government, relieve the teacher of wearisome details of organization and discipline, and, at the same time, initiate the children into the machinery and theory of all good government.

CURRENT EVENTS AND COMMENTS.

CHILDREN pass through stages when, while they may really be taking in much, they appear absolutely to have no power to give out anything; and for these stages, education, as we commonly have it, makes no provision. The most intelligent

teacher is apt to lose patience with what looks like stupidity or sloth; and, in any case, the teaching progresses in the customary order, with a constant pressure on the pupil for proofs of visible acquisition, regardless of whether the internal forces are

intent upon other, and, at the instant, more imperative functional duties or not.

It is true that some children have more of these absorbent periods, and longer ones, than others; but it is also true that these eventually do not prove to be the dullest children, but often the reverse. In conclusion of the whole matter, what one would like to have answered is this: Are times of this sort, in which it seems impossible for the brain to discharge, or even to acquire, anything of value, to be considered a part of the inevitable constitution of things, something no more to be fought against than the farmer can fight with his fields because they must lie periodically fallow, if they are to bear good crops; or can education, thanks to the newer and more enlightened recognition of mind-stages in which all growth goes on below the surface, so treat these stages in childhood, that they will be less troublesome in later years? Do the semi-comatose mental periods come within the physician's jurisdiction—are the matters of bile or lymph, liver or spleen—or will future teachers reach them? Are they physical wholly, or also psychic? We know of instances, surely, where they have been triumphantly forced off during a brilliant childhood and adolescence, by intensive instructors, and a stimulative educational regime; and where, also, the pupil thereafter collapsed into insignificance, showing no power further of any sort; much less the enviable power that is ever available, in hand, ready for use.—*From the Point of View in the March* Scribner's.

The northern boundary of Quebec has always been in dispute since Quebec had an existence. At the time of the conquest, in 1760, a commission agreed upon between Great Britain and France had the subject under

consideration. But its labors were suspended by the acquisition of the territory by the British. Ten or eleven years ago the question was revived, when Quebec filed a claim for all the lands in Canada belonging to Old France.

The legal boundary of the province, it was conceded, would be the northerly limit of the French possessions. It was, however, no longer possible to fix a line upon that base, as a large slice of the territory had already been handed over by Great Britain to Newfoundland, under the name of Labrador. A conventional boundary was consequently proposed by Quebec. The country was examined by Federal explorers, and the proposed limits were reported upon. A counter proposition was made by the Department of the Interior, and that offer, having been accepted by Quebec, is now awaiting parliamentary ratification.

The present northerly limit of Quebec is the height of land between Lake Temiscamingue and the easterly limit of the province. The new delimitation is a line from the head of Lake Temiscamingue along the Ontario boundary, and proceeding thence due north to James Bay. Quebec will take in the shores of the James Bay to the mouth of the East Main river, the great northern artery.

The boundary will follow this river to a point in latitude 52 degrees and 55 minutes north, and longitude 70 degrees 42 minutes west of Greenwich. From this point Quebec strikes eastward to the Hamilton, or the great Esquimaux river, which it follows until it reaches the westerly boundary of Labrador. The province is therefore to be given a natural boundary in the north, formed by the East Main river and the Hamilton river, with an imaginary line connecting the two. These are the two largest rivers on the Labrador peninsula, the East Main flowing into Hudson's Bay, and

the Hamilton into the Atlantic. With this addition Quebec will have a territory of 347,350 square miles, and will be larger than France and Great Britain combined. The province acquires the lands, timber, and minerals, but in the opinion of the explorers who were sent to spy out the country, its resources are not of very great value. Both Mr. Ogilvie and Mr. Lowe were sent by the Interior Department into the great region now to be passed over to Quebec, and neither was favorably impressed as to its value for lumbering or agricultural purposes. If it is to prove a source of wealth it will be as a mineral country. The final transfer of the territory requires the sanction of the Parliament of Canada, and probably the Imperial Parliament, before it can be accomplished.

Mr. Steedman laid a just emphasis on the ideals of the competent and conscientious teacher. "To most of us," he told his audience, "our schools are the great object of our lives; not a mere something by which we earn a living, but the object of our professional pride, work for which we sacrifice much which is not strictly within the terms of our agreement. We affect human beings, we deal with potentialities, with characters which will bear through their lives traces of our influence; we are stimulated with the thought of their future, and, in the grateful appreciation of a certain number, we hope to reap some sweet reward for our labors, for what I would often dare to claim as self-sacrifice. We claim that many of us realize that ours is a great work, a greater than codes or by-laws can make it, and that we are striving to educate in the highest sense of the word." Perhaps the grand defect of our present system is that it tends to destroy the teacher's interest in his work (and therefore his efficiency) by

entangling him in a network of rules and regulations.

So soon as rules press arbitrarily upon men of energy and ability one of two things will happen—either the rules will be disregarded, or the men and their work will suffer. The fact gives point to Mr. Steedman's declaration that education in the higher sense is above codes and by-laws. In a great and complicated system such as the educational system of this country, order is certainly of the essence of success. Where multitudes of men in various places are striving for a common object, it is necessary that that object should be kept steadily before the eyes of all, and that individual experiment should be discouraged. But rules should, if possible, be made rather a stimulus than a hindrance. Education is a national concern. Those who frame codes and make by-laws are not those who are principally affected; and it is surely to the interest of the majority that no department or "Central Office" be permitted to exercise unreasonable control. This was Mr. Steedman's plea, and none can deny its reasonableness.

It was unfortunate for our public schools that the idea of making play of study was introduced a few years ago. Average human nature needs no such hint or help in school or out. It will make things easy enough for itself without outside assistance. It needs, and must have, the opposite instruction—hard study. Our girls and boys must understand that getting an education is not easy; there is hard, wearisome work in it. We are not disparaging play as an exercise for physical and mental good; that is necessary. We are criticising the idea that acquiring an education is easy and pleasurable, when there is nothing in it like play. Everybody who has tried it knows that it is hard

work, not eight or ten hours a day, but sixteen hours, year after year. There are difficulties to be overcome, privations to be practised, knotty problems to be solved, sacrifices of ease and comfort to be made, and great struggles to be pressed. Hundreds, who possess a burning thirst for knowledge, accept the experience, with all its hardships, and press forward for the prize, enjoying the labor as they go. But thousands shrink from the undertaking before they begin, and other thousands turn back after trying the up grade, disheartened and appalled. It is too much work for them, too great a tax upon time, patient thought, and application, and too much pushing, pushing, pushing. They discover precious little play in the career.

The average boy and girl do not love study any more than they love to work. What they need is not to delude them into the idea that it is easy to acquire an education, but to inspire them to decide for it in spite of all the difficulties and hard work necessary. This makes them manly and womanly. The more they can be made to see plainly in study, the less will they be disposed to apply themselves closely. The more they can feel a desire to surmount obstacles in the acquisition of knowledge, the stronger they will become for true work, and the more they will enjoy it. For this reason, pupils must understand that it is hard work to get an education, and will require the best and noblest qualities they possess, applied for years. It is the only possible way of developing manly and womanly attributes. The great majority of educators are of the same opinion on this subject. They see clearly that youth of both sexes must be inspired to noble action, instead of being lulled into inactivity by the idea that education is play. There is no inspiration to the highest endeavor in

play of any sort. Inspiration comes with the idea of self-sacrificing, conquering effort; that the highest achievements are the reward of the loftiest purpose and hardest work. Inspiration comes from the inside instead of outside of a human soul; and the thought of play can never touch the button that turns on the mental and spiritual illumination. It is the thought of hard work, with the goal in view, that does it.—*William H. Thayer.*

Every now and then one hears the remark, that college girls do not have good manners, writes Mary G. Bush, in *The Outlook*. The charge is so sweeping, and, if based on fact, so deplorable, that it merits careful examination. It is pertinent to ask what homes furnish the bulk of students to colleges for women.

The best element in these institutions is contributed by homes dedicated to religion, learning, art, and the spiritual side of life as contrasted with the merely material. The daughters of preachers, teachers, doctors, lawyers, authors—in fine, of men in whose lives the intellectual predominates—constitute this desirable element. Fine of fibre, and not lacking in vigor, these girls are almost invariably leaders by virtue of a superior degree of civilization. They may not, on all occasions, display the *savoir faire* of the fashionable girl, but in all essentials of conduct their traditions are excellent.

Many homes to which a sudden prosperity has come are also represented in the woman's college. Fathers and mothers, feeling their own limitations, desire to give a better chance to their children than has been possible for themselves, and turn to schools and colleges with a truly American faith in the refining potency of education. In consequence, we find many students in

whom force is more conspicuous than finish, strenuousness than suavity, an aggressive ambition than the calm of unquestioned attainment.

The social habit of nearly a score of formative years is not greatly altered by a relatively short residence in academic precincts; especially when vacations are generally spent under familiar home influence. Nevertheless, novel conditions may produce odd results. Human nature is never at a standstill, and some degree of modification may be looked for as a result of college environment.

Captious critics seldom take into consideration the fact, that in college a girl is taken out of natural relations with the world at large and becomes a member of an artificial community. Her sense of individual responsibility is sometimes weakened from living in a crowd, and there is a resultant loss, for the time being, of that delicate consideration for the rights and feelings of others that is the basis of good manners. In particular instances, there may also be a feeling of escape from leading-strings, under the impulse of which the girl takes a naughty pleasure in doing what she has never been allowed to do. Her peccadilloes, however, are offensive against taste, not against morality. Furthermore, being thrown so much upon her own resources, she may be guilty of self-will and conceit—faults, by the way, not unknown among young people outside of college precincts.

These tendencies do not add to the attractiveness of the individual, and often provoke indiscriminate criticism of the whole student body. Nevertheless we are glad to believe the phase to be merely a passing one. As soon as normal relations with the outside world are resumed, the girl perceives that courtesy is essential to social success, and also comes to a

salutary realization of her own relative insignificance in the great plan of creation.

AGRICULTURE IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

In the first place it may be said that a common complaint is made that there is a tendency among boys to leave the farm and seek employment in towns and cities. Our system of education is blamed for this, and I think with justice.

Again, the occupation of farming is said to be unprofitable except for those who work under the most favorable circumstances.

Again, the methods of farming are changing from year to year. Different crops are being raised owing to the closing of markets which were once profitable. Instead of raising wheat and other grains, more attention has to be given to the raising of stock and poultry, and the production of butter, cheese and eggs. Nor should it be forgotten that competition with foreign countries, where labor is cheaper than in Ontario, makes a change, not only in products, but in methods of procuring them a necessity.

The farmer should be a botanist. He has to do with a variety of plants. He should know which are annuals, biennials and perennials, and their various habits and proclivities. He should know which are useful and which harmful. The soils in which they grow best, and the conditions most suitable for their maturity and development should be known.

The farmer should be a chemist. He should understand the composition of soils and the conditions under which plant food is assimilated by the plant. He should understand the various changes in the chemical composition of each part of the plant from

early growth to maturity. He should know as much as possible about light, heat and the various natural phenomena, and their effects upon climate and the development of animal and vegetable life.

The farmer should be a veterinary surgeon. He should understand the anatomy of every animal he keeps. He should be familiar with the diseases to which they are subject, and the best methods of treatment in cases of emergency.

The farmer should be an artist. He should be able not only to draw a plan of his house and buildings for insurance purposes, and of his fields for the purpose of bookkeeping, so that he may know from year to year which crops are produced at a gain and which at a loss. His eye should be so trained as to be able to recognize the individual features and lines of every animal, so as to distinguish excellences and defects, whether they are to be transmitted to paper or not. Only an artist can do this.

The farmer should be a skilful mechanic. He should be able to oversee the laying of tile-drains on his farm. He should be able to make repairs in woodwork and iron, he should be able to build a silo, and to construct additional buildings for machinery and implements, waggons and sleighs, so as to avoid the slovenly plan of allowing such things to remain in the open air when they ought to be protected from the weather.

It is not to be supposed that the information can be imparted in a public school which would make a man expert in all the branches to which I have alluded. Nor is it to be expected that any one man should be an adept in every branch, however desirable that might be. A vast amount can be accomplished with reading, provided a good foundation has been laid by means of correct teaching.

But if agriculture is to be taught, we must have teachers qualified to teach it. We must have a text-book, and the more attractive to the pupils the matter of the text-book is the better. But to have the text repeated, page after page, by the pupils to a teacher who knows no more about the subject than the pupils, must prove a failure. This was tried some years ago in the case of agriculture, and later on in the subjects of drawing, music and temperance. I hope it will never be attempted again.

And how shall our teachers become qualified to teach agriculture? The only method I know is to attend during the summer vacation the classes held at the Agricultural College at Guelph, where the most suitable subjects are taught by the Professors of the College. To an industrious teacher, familiar with the needs of the farm, and possessing a good general and scientific education, the advantages to be derived from taking such a course ought to be sufficient to induce trustees to more than compensate him for the trifling expense to which he would be put, by a substantial increase of salary.

But whether agriculture be taught or not, a great improvement might be made which would increase the interest of pupils in farm work. The arithmetic in our text-books is almost entirely commercial. If questions were given involving the relative constituents of milk, of the various soils, of plants, grain, vegetables and fruit, the relative proportions of bone, fat and lean in animals; also the cost of packing and transportation of various products by land and water; the whole to be based on facts and experience, pupils would become interested in reading books and papers which are now dull and unattractive, and indirectly an interest in the study of agriculture would be cultivated.—
Inspector J. H. Knight, Lindsay.

THE ABUSE OF FREE LIBRARIES.

At its recent meeting in Cleveland, the American Library Association heard some candid criticism from its President, Mr. John Cotton Dana, Librarian of the Public Library of Denver. He feared that his enthusiasm for the free public library was born more of contagion than of conviction. In the public library he said you have stored a few thousand books including, of course, the best books of all time—which no one reads—and a generous percentage of fiction of the cheaper sort. To this place come in good proportion the idle and the lazy, and also the people who cannot endure the burden of a thought, and who fancy they are improving their minds, while, in fact, they are simply letting the cool water of knowledge trickle through the sieve of an idle curiosity. The more persistent visitors are largely men who have either failed in a career, or never had a career, or do not wish a career.

Mr. Dana charged the free public library with relieving the idle, the incompetent and the indifferent reader from the necessity—would he have books—of going to work to earn them. It checks, he continued, the serious reader in collecting a library of his own, adapted to the wants and tastes of himself and his family. It leads parents to regard with indifference the general reading of their children, just as the free public school may lead them to be indifferent to their formal education.

This and much more in the same strain was loudly applauded by Mr. Dana's large and representative audience of librarians. It is evident that the abuses of free public libraries have led to much searching of heart among their chief officers. They are feeling, as the teachers of the public schools also feel, that they cannot take the place of the parent who abdicates

from one of the primary responsibilities of parenthood. A child whose father and mother hand over its mental and moral culture to the teacher and the librarian virtually becomes an orphan. Neither public school nor public library can do its duty towards its pupils and readers without the hearty and intelligent co-operation of parents. Mr. Dana's address was clearly intended to traverse the easy optimism and self-gratulatory vein usual in presidential utterances. His criticisms will bear fruit in pointing to the abuses and losses inevitable when the form of gratuity is impressed upon a comfort or a luxury which each should buy for himself. The form of gratuity is a form only; at great and increasing cost a service is proffered which should be rendered, not in the free public library but in the home; or, if a compromise must be made, then by the free public library watchfully directed from the home.

HENRY HUDSON AND THE N.W. PASSAGE.

When, one after another, the host of early explorers who followed Columbus set sail from Europe it was not a new country, but a new sea, of which they were in search.

They hoped to find, amid the islands of the vast archipelago, some outlying portions of which had been discovered by Columbus, a route to India.

Among these explorers, in the year 1609, was Henry Hudson, in the little ship of 80 tons, the *Half-Moon*.

At first Hudson sought for a north-east passage around Norway, but at length he turned to the west, and reaching the American shores about the latitude of Newfoundland, he sailed up and down the coast, exploring inlet after inlet, until he reached the lower bay at the mouth of the

Hudson River. Here, on the fourth day of September, he cast anchor, and at once sent out his boats to explore the adjacent waters.

While exploring the Staten Island "Kills" the men were attacked by two canoe-crews of Indians, whose arrows killed one of their number, John Colman, and wounded two others. (They buried him on the beach of Sandy Hook, which they named Colman point. Two of the Indians whom they had captured they dressed in red coats and held as hostages.)

Ten days after entering the bay they continued on to the northward, and as they ascended the stream, the strong ebb and flow of its tide, and the continued saltness of its waters, seemed to show that this was the long-sought for passage; and they watched eagerly to see the water beyond spreading out into the great western sea. (At West Point they anchored for the night, and in the next morning's fog the hostage Indians slipped unperceived through a port hole, and escaped to land, calling back to them "in scorn.")

Opposite the Catskills they anchored again. Here they found "very loving people, and very old men," and traded with the Indians for corn, pumpkins and tobacco.

On September 18th Hudson went on shore near where Hudson city now stands, and visited an old chief who showed him great stores of maize and other provisions, and besought him to stay and feast, and when as the day drew to a close, he insisted on returning to his ship, they thought he was afraid, and breaking their arrows, they threw them into the fire.

Next day the ship lay near the site of Albany, but the boats continued to ascend the stream, to a point a little beyond Waterford, where now stands the little hamlet, Half-Moon, named in commemoration of his landing.

Here Hudson gave the natives a feast, the story of which lingered for 200 years in Indian tradition.

But he himself was probably in no jocund mood. The ocean-like saltness of the water, which had so much encouraged him, had long disappeared, the ship had repeatedly grounded on shoals, and now the tide ceased to ebb and flow.

He could no longer doubt that his search for the north-west passage was once more a failure. The prow of his vessel was turned southward, and October 1st, passing the Highlands, he anchored below the Indian village of "Sackhoes," on whose site Peekskill now stands. While lying in Haverstraw bay, an Indian helped himself to "a pillow, two shirts, and two bandealers" (a kind of short cutlass), but was shot while trying to get away with them. At Spuyten Duyvil the Indians came out in canoes and attacked the ship, shooting at the occupants with arrows. Six muskets replied, and killed two or three of the Indians. They renewed the attack from a point of land, but "a falcon" shot killed two of them and the rest fled to the woods; yet they manned another canoe with nine or ten men," through which a falcon shot was sent, killing one of its occupants. Three or four more were killed by the sailors' muskets, and the "Half-Moon hurried down into the bay clear of all danger," and so sailed away home to Europe.

(It is curious to note, that in the same summer of 1609, Samuel Champlain, the French governor of Quebec, was making his way southward from the St. Lawrence through the Richelieu River, Lake Champlain and Lake George, in search of the great South Sea. On his way he paused to help an alliance of three tribes of Indians, the Montagnais, the Hurons and the

*A falcon was a small cannon, carrying a ball from 2 to 4 lbs. weight.

Algonquins, to fight the enemies, the Iroquois, whom his musket shots put to flight in terror.)

(The furthest point attained by him

is said to have been only "about 20 leagues" from that reached by Henry Hudson.) - *J. Irving Gorton, Sing Sing.*

SCHOOL WORK.

TRIGONOMETRY, 1897.

C. P. MUCKLE, B.A.

6. In the side BC of the triangle ABC, the point D is so taken that BD equals ma . Show that $\overline{AD}^2 = c^2 + m^2 a^2 - (a^2 - b^2 + c^2)m$.

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{AD}^2 &= c^2 + m^2 a^2 - 2ma \cdot c \cdot \cos B = c^2 + m^2 a^2 - 2ma \cdot c \left(\frac{a^2 + c^2 - b^2}{2ac} \right) \\ &= c^2 + m^2 a^2 - m(a^2 - b^2 + c^2). \end{aligned}$$

7. (a) Prove that in any triangle the sides are proportional to the sines of the opposite angles.

(b) In the triangle ABC, show that

$$a \sin(B - C) + b \sin(C - A) + c \sin(A - B) = 0.$$

(a) Book work.

$$(b) \frac{a}{\sin A} = \frac{b}{\sin B} = \frac{c}{\sin C} \quad \therefore a = \frac{b \sin A}{\sin C} \quad b = \frac{c \sin B}{\sin C}$$

Substitute these values of a and b in the expression. Multiply up by $\sin C$ and we have $a \sin(B - C) + \text{etc.} + \text{etc.} =$

$$\frac{c}{\sin C} [\sin A \sin(B - C) + \text{etc.} + \text{etc.}] = \frac{c}{\sin C} (0) = 0$$

8. Find the value of $\frac{(1872)^{\frac{1}{5}}}{.349}$ to 4 decimal places, having given

$$\log 2 = .3010300, \log 3 = .4771213, \log 13 = .1139434,$$

$$\log 349 = .5428254, \text{ and } \log 324815 = .511636$$

$$\begin{aligned} \log \frac{(1872)^{\frac{1}{5}}}{.349} &= \frac{1}{5} \log (4 \log 2 + 2 \log 3 + \log 13 - 3) - \log .349 \\ &= .0544612 - .5428254 = .5116358. \quad \log 324815 = .511636. \quad \therefore \text{number} \\ \text{required} &= 32481 + \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \log \frac{(1872)^{\frac{1}{5}}}{.349} &= \frac{1}{5} \log 1872 - \log .349 = \frac{1}{5} (\log 1872 - 3) - (\log 349 - 3) \\ &= \frac{1}{5} (2 \log 3 + 4 \log 2 + \log 13 - 3) - \log 349 + 3, \quad (\text{since } 1872 = 3^2 \times 2^4 \times 13) \\ &= .5116358. \quad \log 324815 = .511636. \quad \text{The difference would affect only the} \\ \text{digit in the fifth place.} \quad \therefore \log \frac{(1872)^{\frac{1}{5}}}{.349} &= 3.2481, \text{ correct to 4 decimal places.} \end{aligned}$$

9. A flagstaff a feet high stands on a tower $3a$ feet high. An observer on a level with the top of the flagstaff finds the angle subtended by the flagstaff equal to the angle subtended by the tower. Determine in terms of a the distance of the observer from the top of the flagstaff.

Let x = distance of observer from top of flagstaff, and θ = angle subtended by the eye in the two positions. Then

$$\therefore \tan \theta = \frac{a}{x} \text{ and } \tan 2\theta = \frac{4a}{x} = \frac{2 \tan \theta}{1 - \tan^2 \theta} \quad \therefore \frac{4a}{x} = \frac{2 \frac{a}{x}}{1 - \frac{a^2}{x^2}}$$

$$x = a\sqrt{2}.$$

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES.

THOMAS LINDSAY, TORONTO.

If one looks over the very long lists of interesting telescopic objects in heavens, to be found in various text books, the impression is gathered that the skies have been pretty well scoured; yet the Royal Astronomical Society publishes a list of nearly 100 new nebulae, all discovered by the veteran Dr. Lewis Swift, at Echo Mountain, California, during 1897. These objects are mostly faint, small, cloudy-looking masses, but they afford evidence of the wide diffusion of nebulae, worlds in process of formation, it may be whole systems, in an early stage of evolution. Although the amateur cannot expect to rival the constant observer in a well equipped observatory, it is still possible to add a little, even in the field of nebula discovery, by close attention when there is opportunity. Seeing an object for the first time, the first thought is that some one else must have observed it also, that it is well known. The place for the amateur, however, should be to note the object as provisionally new, and announce it. It is a matter of some regret that Canadians are not more to the front in the line of discovery.

Since Jupiter became so favorably situated for observation there has been considerable discussion regarding the longevity, so to speak, of some of the more conspicuous spots upon the disc. The well known "red spot" has been

observed steadily for 20 years, while occasional observations are recorded here and there for 30 years previous. Other notable spots have been seen continuously for a shorter period, but still long enough to render their final disappearance a curious phenomenon. One change in Jupiter's appearance this year is noticeable even in a small telescope, that is the ill-defined condition of the equatorial belts. They do not stand out so beautifully as they did a year ago; and with difficulty only are two of the belts seen at all, while last year's record was good seeing of four belts in a two-inch telescope.

Towards the end of May we have Saturn in opposition to the sun and in best position for observation. With an angular diameter of 16 seconds of arc, and the rings broadly opened out, the planet will be a beautiful object. He does not attain a greater attitude than about 27 degrees, but in the clear evenings of the summer that is high enough to allow of good definition. There has been some dispute regarding the number of satellites of Saturn visible in a good three-inch telescope. Four of the eight attendants have been reported, and a gain declared impossible. In taking up this work of observing the satellites it is very important to first study the region where Saturn happens to be, as it is very easy to mistake a star for one of the little moons. Their motion is slow, and this adds to the difficulty of identifying them.

Mercury reaches greatest elonga-

tion west on the morning of May 28th, being about 25 degrees from the sun. The planet rises to the south of the sunrise point, and being about one-half illuminated, forms a very pretty object in the telescope.

An interesting phenomenon occurs on May 22nd at 1 o'clock p.m. This is an occultation of Venus by the moon, then two days old. This is rather early for seeing the moon in broad daylight, but those who have large telescopes may observe both planet and moon.

ONTARIO NORMAL COLLEGE, HAMILTON.

A petition to have the zoology taken off the pass science paper was unsuccessful. As zoology is always taught by the science specialists in the

schools, there seems very little reason for its being retained.

Sessional examinations were held before Easter in geography, psychology of number, grammar, drawing, physics, mathematics and Latin. The examination in drill is now going on, a few students being examined at a time.

The Literary Society are holding an oration, essay and poem contest on the last Friday of the month. Prizes have been offered for the best original poems and essays contributed by pupils of the school.

Mr. R. A. Thompson, B.A., is delivering a course of lectures on School Management. These consist chiefly of incidents from his own experience as a teacher and principal, and deal principally with the disciplinary duties of the teacher. These reminiscences would make useful and interesting reading for students and teachers, if published in book form.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

The *Century Magazine* for April has an important series of articles on coal, the first being a Pennsylvania colliery village in which is given a vivid and realistic picture of the life of coal laborers. In the *Century's* American Artists, series the wood engraver Charles Frederick Ulrich is given. There is also an interesting account of a bicyclist's adventures among the Alps, written by Mrs. Pennell. The article has the great advantage of being illustrated by Mr. Pennell. Mrs. Burton Harrison's Good Americans is safely finished, but the Adventures of Francois make that person, month by month, more real and living. In the verse will be found Her Last Letter, being a reply to "His Answer," by Bret Harte.

Almost anyone who reads and is puzzled by a newspaper will be grateful to the writer of an article on Dreyfus and Zola in the May *Atlantic*. There is so much behind the glib reports that one cannot be sure of, so many true stories that are obscured by many issues, that a voice of authority, belonging to someone who has examined anything original in the case, is a welcome one. There are two good, uncommonly good, short stories in this same number of the *Atlantic*; one is about a successful, one might almost speak of her as a veteran, actress, and it is called Her Last Appearance. There are a good many problems in it, amongst others, whether young people have a right or not to expect those who are older

to make way for them after a certain time, if it is possible, of course. The problem might stand a chance of being solved if people were to aim at acquiring characters of some size and roundness and not merely occupations. The other story is about a woman, too, that is, it is mainly concerned with the analysis of a woman's identity. Why does not some man who can write show us the secret springs of some other man? It is possible that women may be too much explained.

In the April number of the *American Monthly Review of Reviews* one of course finds a good deal about Spain and Cuba. It will be interesting to see how the May number will cope with the present details of the unhappy situation. At least whatever happens let us hope that it will hasten the cure, the extinction of war. There is an interesting article by Baron Pierre de Coubertin, Does Cosmopolitan Life Lead to International Friendliness? followed by an account of the writer by Albert Shaw. The cartoons go on proving what a love we have for the ugly.

The editor of the *Ladies' Home Journal* has produced a number of remarkable after-dinner stories about famous people in the May number. They are almost but not quite vouched for. I think the most of us will be a little sorry about Mrs. Gladstone. It is such a worthy thing to be proud of a husband that one ought to be forgiven for it even if one says strange things. On the contrary, Professor Huxley's Buckwheat Cake is a beautiful story. Miss Julia Magruder is at present contributing a serial entitled A Heaven-Kissing Hill. The Inner Experiences of a Cabinet Minister's Wife are extremely entertaining.

We have received from Ginn & Co., Boston, Cæsar's Gallic War, Book I, edited by A. W. Roberts; German Composition, by Wilhelm Bernhardt; and The New Century Speaker, by H. A. Frink.

W. C. Heath & Co., Boston. Nicotiana, with notes and a vocabulary, by W. Bernhardt Der Zerbroschene Krug, edited by E. S. Joynes. From September to June With Nature, by M. I. Warren.

We have received from MacMillan & Co., London, through their Toronto agents, the Copp, Clark Co., the following books: An Arithmetic for Schools, by S. L. Loney; Simple Lessons in Cookery, by Mary Harrison; Object Lessons in Domestic Economy, by Vincent T. Murche; and English Grammar, Past and Present, by J. C. Nesfield.

Eldredge & Brother, Philadelphia. A Text-Book of Elementary Botany, by W. A. Kellerman.

Ginn & Co., Boston. The Story-Teller's Art, a guide to the Elementary Study of Fiction, by Charity Dye. The Captives and Trinummus of Plantus, with introduction and notes by E. P. Morris.

The American Book Company, New York. A New Astronomy for Beginners, by David P. Todd. Stories of Pennsylvania, by J. S. Walton and M. G. Brumbaugh. A Laboratory Manual in Practical Botany, by C. H. Clark. Applied Physiology, by Frank Overton.

THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

JUNE-JULY, 1898.

NOTES ON BURNS.

REV. PROF. CLARK, D.C.L.

THERE is hardly any poet to whom we approach with prepossessions so strong as those with which we come to the study of Burns. To those who are able to understand his language without difficulty he appeals with irresistible force; and many have found it worth their while to undergo the labor of understanding his language in order that they might come to a more perfect comprehension of his poetry.

There will always be differences of opinion—perhaps rather differences of feeling—about the character of Burns. His generosity and nobility, his hatred of insincerity and hypocrisy, the affectionateness and sympathetic kindness of his disposition can hardly be ignored by any. The darker side of his character is, alas, only too conspicuous. If he was never, in the full sense of the word, a drunkard, he was not unfrequently guilty of intemperance. It has been urged that, in this respect, he was no worse than other men of his day. It has also been urged that the hypocrisy of many of the professing religious people about him drove him to extremes in the other direction. These pleas may be urged as extenuations for weakness, they can hardly be regarded as defences or apologies.

Although Burns had little knowledge of his great contemporaries, and

comparatively no connection with them, yet he belonged to a great age, and could not have been uninfluenced by the currents of thought which moved around him. Cowper was born twenty-eight years before him, and died four years after him. Goethe was born eighteen years later, in 1749. Wordsworth in 1770, Scott in 1771, Coleridge in 1772, Southey in 1774. Burns was born in 1759 and died 1796.

As regards the poetry of Burns, there is hardly, and there has hardly ever been, a difference of opinion. Its excellence was recognized in his own country at once. Up to the present time there has been no interval in which it has been neglected or depreciated, as has been the case with many other poets; and we may safely prophesy perpetuity and immortality to his fame, unless his language should be forgotten. Even in that case attention will be given to the obsolete dialect for the sake of the poetry which it enshrines.

If we must call him the very first of Scottish poets, we must also give him a high place among the lyric poets of every age and nation; and it is to this class that his poetry principally belongs, although "Tam o' Shanter" shows that he was not incapable of epic poetry.

It is curious to notice the vicissi-

tudes of Scottish, and even of British, poetry. Between Chaucer and Surrey there was hardly any English poetry, whilst there was Scottish poetry of considerable excellence, notably ballads of a very high order. After the Reformation Scottish song was almost silent. When we remember the period in the life of Milton—between the earlier poems and the *Paradise Lost*—the period of the Commonwealth in which he produced religious and political pamphlets instead of poems, we may be able to understand how the religious movement in Scotland absorbed all the literary energy of the people and left them none for the cultivation of the muses.

The eighteenth century was nowhere productive in works of imagination, and in Scotland was given up to the study of history, philosophy and economy. A country which can boast of the great names of Hume, Robertson, Reid, Stewart and Adam Smith, need not be ashamed of its place in the Republic of Letters. Of poets before Burns—belonging to post-Reformation times—there are only two worthy of mention, the greater light, Allan Ramsay (1685-1758), whose "*Gentle Shepherd*" is still worthy of perusal. Ramsay himself thought it superior to the "*Pastor Fido*" of Guarini, a question which we need not decide—the lesser light, Robert Ferguson, born 1750. A later contemporary, Tannahill (1774-1810), completes the circle.

In these brief notes it may be convenient to take the life of the poet in periods, marked by his successive residences:—

I. ALLOWAY 1759-1766 (till 7 years of age).

Burns's father, who spelt his name *Burness*, came from Kincardineshire, his native place, and after several vicissitudes, settled in Ayrshire in 1750, and took seven acres of ground

in the parish of Alloway. Here he built the "auld clay biggin'" in which his son was born. In 1757, then aged 36, he married Agnes Brown, of Maybole, in Carrick. Gilbert was his first son, Robert the second. It was from his mother that Burns derived his wonderful eyes which so impressed Walter Scott when he saw him in Edinburgh. Of Burns's father, Murdoch, the poet's teacher, declares that he spoke English well, and that he was a man of "stubborn, ungainly integrity, and of headlong, ungovernable irascibility."

II. MOUNT OLIPHANT. 1766-1777 (Aetat. 7-18).

Burns's father removed to Mount Oliphant in 1766, and lived here in great poverty, his boys helping him on the farm. Gilbert and Robert were taught ordinary subjects by their father, and French by Murdoch. Poor as they were, they were better circumstanced in regard to literature than many more wealthy children. The father was fond of books, and Robert relates that he read a good many books in his boyhood, the "*Vision of Mirza*," with great admiration, Addison's *Hymns*, the life of Hannibal and that of Sir W. Wallace. Later on he read Pope's *Homer* and other works, the works of Richardson, Smollett, Locke and Shakespeare—not a bad beginning for a poor boy. Afterwards, Shenstone, Thomson, Ferguson, Sterne, Ossian (!), Milton, and, above all, the Bible. He also learned to dance, in opposition to his father's will.

III. LOCHLEA. 1777-1784 (Aetat. 18-25).

With the removal to Lochlea, in 1777, we come to a period of greater importance. His early poems were of little account. But here we find him in love with a girl named Ellison Begbie, who is celebrated by him under two names, Peggy Alison and

Mary Morrison. The first three years at Lochlea were fairly prosperous. But on New Year's Day of 1782 their house was burnt, and in 1782 their father died. During this period his poetic genius began to display itself in such compositions as "John Barleycorn" (1782), the "Lament for Mailie" (1782), "Rigs o' Barley," "My Nannie, O," and "Green grow the rushes, O!" (1783). In these charming poems we have specimens of Burns's manifold genius—his love of nature, his devotion to women, his rich humor (here he is like Scott, and unlike his countrymen in general, who have a good deal of sharp wit but little humor), his remarkable power of expression, the simplicity, directness and richness of his thought and language.

IV. MOSSGIEL. 1784-1788 (Aetat. 25-29).

Burns and his brother Gilbert took the farm of Mossiel, which, like Lochlea, his previous residence, was near Mauchline—all in Ayrshire. This is often (and probably with truth) said to be the best period of Burns's life; since he was not only at this time characterized by temperance and frugality, but produced here some of his best work. It was here that he met Jean Armour, his future wife. It may be sufficient, in regard to their relations, to observe that a private Scotch marriage had been celebrated between them in 1785, which her parents managed (quite illegally) to annul in 1786. The reader should remember that the Scottish Church of the day, and the Presbyterian bodies generally, represented two different tendencies, the pietistic and the liberal. Gavin Hamilton, Burns's landlord, and the poet himself were on the side of the liberals. Neither school seems to have been quite satisfactory.

During this period Burns produced (1785) "Holy Willie's Prayer"—a composition of tremendous energy, if

not quite to be justified,—the "Holy Fair," the "Jolly Beggars," which Carlyle places in the very first rank of his poems—followed by Mrs. Oliphant. We admit the wonderful energy and versatility of these songs and verses, but we cannot put them before "Tam o' Shanter." "The Address to the Deil" is of the same year.

To the year 1786 belongs the somewhat mysterious episode of "Highland Mary." Burns, disgusted at the conduct of Jean Armour's parents, gave himself up to this new flame—the only other in his life which seems to have been real and strong. He and Mary became betrothed on May 14, and intended emigration. Difficulties came in the way; but all were ended by her death from fever, October 12.

To the years 1785-6 belong the humorous poem "Death and Doctor Hornbrook," the delightful "Twa Dogs," the "Cotter's Saturday Night," the two "Epistles to Davie, a brither poet," "Hallowe'en," "To a Mouse," "To a Mountain Daisy." These poems alone would serve to immortalize any writer. The first epistle to Davie is in every way remarkable for its genuineness of sentiment, for its quick transition of thought, for its illustration of the manner in which Burns employs the languages of England and of Scotland to express different kinds of sentiment. The poems to the mouse and the mountain daisy are full of the tenderest feelings for all created beings.

All the poems named, with the exception of the "Jolly Beggars," appeared in Burns's first volume of poems, which was published in July, 1786, and took Scotland by storm. Of an edition of 600 copies only 41 were left at the end of a month, a very remarkable success when we consider the contracted area to which he appealed. Towards the end of this year he wrote the "Brigs of Ayr," and the "Lass of Ballochmyle."

V. EDINBURGH 1786-1788 (Aetat. 28-30).

The visit of the poet to Edinburgh soon after the publication of his first volume was, in most respects, successful. He was made much of. He was introduced into the best literary society, and produced a most favorable impression upon all whom he met. His deportment was gentle and dignified. His voice was pleasant, his conversation animated and humorous, and his wonderful eyes were never forgotten.

Not merely social advantages, but commercial also resulted from this visit. A new edition of his poems brought him £500, part of which he gave to his brother Gilbert who was struggling with his farm, and out of which he defrayed the expenses of a tour in the Highlands. About the same time he became a contributor to Johnson's Museum, for which he wrote about 180 songs, and to Thomson's Melodies of Scotland, which had from him about 100, some new, some recast.

To this period belongs the episode of Clarinda, the wife of a Mr. McLhose, who had gone to the West Indies. An attachment sprang up between the lady and the poet, leading to a high-flown correspondence, which is preserved, but adds nothing to Burns's literary reputation. Of whatever quality or depth this attachment may have been, it was not of long duration, for in 1788 Burns again met Jean Armour and the old love revived, and at the age of 29 he married her, now in public and with the consent of her people. Soon afterwards he was appointed to a post in the Excise, receiving £50 a year, afterwards raised to £70. This post he held during the last seven years of his life. We can hardly regard such an appointment with satisfaction. We remember Carlyle's bitter remark about providence having sent to the world one of its most brilliant children

and they sent him to gauge ale-barrels! Alas!

VI. ELLISLAND. 1788-1791 (Aetat. 30-33).

Soon after his marriage Burns removed to Ellisland, where he united farming and the discharge of his duties as Excise officer. These duties, such as they were, he fulfilled in a creditable manner, but it is apparent that he was overworked and unfitted for his own proper business. Yet some poems produced during this period are equal to anything he ever did. For example, we have that most sweet and perfect song "Of a' the airts the win' can blaw," written during his honeymoon. The second part of this song, sometimes printed in the works of Burns, was added by John Hamilton, and met with remarkable success in spite of its audacity. In the same year were written "I ha'e a wife o' my ain," "Auld Lang Syne," much improved from an older song, "Go, fetch to me a pint of wine."

In the following two years he wrote not only "Kirk's Alarm" and "Willie brewed a peck o' maut," but three pieces each of which must stand at the head of the class of compositions to which it belongs—"John Anderson, my jo" (1789), and "Tam o' Shanter" and the "Elegy on Captain Henderson" (1790).

VII. DUMFRIES. 1791-1796 (Aetat. 33-37).

For the last five years Burns lived at Dumfries, for the first time out of his native county of Ayr, although not far from its borders. It was neither town nor country, that is to say, it had all the disadvantages of each, and was the very worst place for Burns to live in. Yet even here the divine singer was not mute, and to this period belong the "Banks and Braes o' Bonnie Doon," the "Lament of James, Earl of Glencairn," "Ae fond kiss," a lyric extolled by men so different as Byron, Scott, Carlyle and

Matthew Arnold (1791), "Duncan Gray," "The Deil's awa' wi' the Exciseman," "Ye Banks and Braes and Streams around the Castle of Montgomery" (one of the sweetest of farewells), all of 1792. "Scots wha ha'e" (1793). But his poetic work became less and less. In 1795 he wrote "A Man's a Man for a' that." In January of 1796 he caught a chill through exposure, which brought on rheumatic fever. During his last illness he wrote "O, wert thou in the cauld blast," for Jessie Leuchars who

nursed him. The last finished offspring of his muse was "Here's a health to one I lo'e dear."

These are but notes almost without comments. It would be difficult to comment without greatly transgressing our limits. Let the reader only go over the pieces indicated above, and he will learn to know Burns for himself. The best edition of his works is that of Paterson, Edinburgh, but the Globe edition is excellent and cheap. Lockhart's Life is perhaps the best.

Trinity University, Toronto.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE TO DAY—NEW ZEALAND.

BY THE VERY REV. PRINCIPAL G. M. GRANT.

Queen's University, Kingston.

TO the average Canadian, unacquainted with the South Pacific Ocean, its vastness and potentialities, New Zealand is simply an appendage of Australia. On a small map it does not seem to be very far away. Just as the thousand miles of intervening wild waters amounted to no more in the eyes of the old Dutch cartographers than the distance between Holland and Zealand, and made them call the one New Zealand as they had called the other New Holland, so it seems somewhat strange to us that New Zealand should have any objection to unite on a federal basis with Australia. The matter appears different after one has sailed under the Southern Cross and lived for a few weeks in different parts of Australasia. New Zealand then is seen to be quite distinct from the island continent. Practically, it is as far away from it as Canada is from Britain. The intervening ocean is not so broad, but it is even more stormy, and it takes about as long to sail from Dunedin, Christchurch, or Wellington as to cross from Halifax to

Liverpool or Southampton. And New Zealand is distinct from Australia more radically than by distance. It is essentially different in fauna, flora, geology, physical geography, and in the character alike of its scenery, its native population, its methods of colonization and its political development.

New Zealanders, moreover, are very far from objecting to being considered part of Australasia; that term being used when Tasmania, the Fijis and New Zealand are included, while the term Australia is limited to the great island itself. They have no intention of isolating themselves and playing a lone hand. They are as deeply interested in the future of the South Pacific as Victoria or New South Wales can be, and they are as willing to bear their share of responsibility in excluding from it all European powers other than Britain. No events in the course of their brief history have wounded them, as members of the Empire, so deeply as the tacit permission given to France to occupy New Caledonia, and more recently

the unwillingness of Britain to forbid the arrogant intrusion of Germany into Samoa. In connection with this latter event, the resolute attitude of the United States excited the enthusiasm of all Australasians. They have felt since that the guardianship of the English-speaking races belongs to the great Republic as well as to the United Kingdom, and that, in so far as concerns the South Pacific at any rate, the Republic has a freer hand and can act more vigorously than a country which is trammelled by complicated European, African and Asian interests. Sir Charles Dilke, in his "Problems of Greater Britain," puts this moderately and correctly when he says: "New Zealand opinion, recognizing that the United States has now established its position in Samoa, prefers the Americans as neighbors in the Pacific to any European military power, and Australia agrees with New Zealand upon the point." He adds: "The sudden popularity of the United States in Australia is one of the most interesting new developments of our day." The cause is not far to seek. An Australasian Monroe doctrine has grown up among our brothers there, and they have found that the United States stood up for their future interests when Britain failed to do so. This matter was of immense importance to them, and it will be infinitely more important when a Nicaraguan or Panama canal has been constructed.

Nothing shows the depth of their feeling more than the expression given to it by Sir George Grey. This great Englishman, who left his impress on South Africa and South Australia, but who for the greatest part of his long life has identified himself with New Zealand, was more indignant with Britain's failure than even with Bismarck's brutal treatment of Samoa and its king. To Sir George,

Britain had deliberately sacrificed the Samoans, under stress of Bismarck's scarcely veiled threat that otherwise Germany would take sides with France in Egypt, and had permitted a great military and naval power to take up a position which would in the future dominate the commerce between herself and the Australasian colonies. "So vast were the interests involved, so wide the issues which depended upon this apparently trivial matter, that he feared England had taken a fatal step and dealt with her own hand a serious blow against her own supremacy. The inflexible resolution of all parties in the United States, which prevented the annexation of Samoa by Germany, filled him with delight, and convinced him that no questions of European politics, no outside entanglement with other nations, would prevent the United States from throwing its shield before the weakest community if the cause of human liberty could be thereby advanced. In his opinion, England and America should act conjointly. In all cases where it is distinctly in the interests of freedom and humanity they should be guided by one spirit and work in unison for the same ends."* So say we all. The upward progress of the world is slow but it is sure. The schism between the mother and eldest daughter is being healed, and both are seeing that their moral and effective union, based on common interests and sentiments, is the one thing needful to ensure a happier future for the world. Prince Bismarck, however, has not forgotten the snub administered to him in connection with his Samoan policy, and it is no wonder that he should now condemn loudly what he terms "the arrogance" of the United States to Spain, and pooh-pooh the prospect or

*Life and Times of Sir George Grey. Vol. II, p. 556 and appendix, p. 604.

probability of anything like an Anglo-American alliance! He has no faith in anything but "blood and iron." But even German unity rests on something deeper than blood and iron.

Let us understand then that New Zealand, though declining to form part of the new "Commonwealth of Australia," the constitution of which is now being submitted to a popular vote, is and always will be an important factor in the life of Australasia and of the Empire. It intends to work out its own destiny as a self-governing community, with sympathetic regard for the big sister island, whose main interests are one with its own, but friendship with whom might be perilled, instead of fostered, by even a loose federal union. This decision seems to me a wise one. Australia has a good many difficulties to overcome before consummating its own unity, and New Zealand should not allow its distinctive life to be submerged in the conflicts of the vaster but more uninteresting mainland. It is great enough to hang by its own head. I know no section of our Colonial Empire, of equal extent, possessed of such great and varied possibilities. In this regard it may be considered as good as Britain itself. It is about the same size; its division into two islands by Cook's Straits gives it special maritime advantages; the climate is as good for breeding a healthy race, and even more equable and of greater range—due to 1,100 miles of length from south to north. It thus includes the temperatures of Italy, France, England and Scotland, and consequently an extraordinary variety of products.

Strange to say, these lovely islands went a-begging for a civilized owner till our own day. Tasman visited them in 1642, and in 1769 Captain Cook landed and left behind pigs, poultry, potatoes and cabbages, which

have thriven exceedingly, as everything introduced since, whether of the animal or vegetable kind, has thriven. But, though Captain Cook had strongly recommended them to the British Government as a home for Englishmen, not till 1840 was New Zealand created a colony. In that same year the South island was within an ace of being picked up by France. Captain Stanley, of H M S. Spitfire, brother of the great Dean of Westminster, had hoisted the Union Jack at Akaroa only three days before the arrival of a French expedition with a number of emigrants on board. The Frenchmen, seeing the flag, good-humoredly accepted the situation and sailed for New Caledonia. The North island soon leaped into importance, in consequence of wars with the natives, brought on by the selfishness of a land company to which the Colonial Office had given extensive powers; an unfortunate experience, repeated only the other day in Rhodesia, and with less excuse, as by this time it ought to be known that the objects of land or mining companies can hardly be other than selfish, and that the rights of the old lords of the soil will be treated with indifference or contempt by corporations whose one thought must be dividends.

The history of the colony is associated with the attractive personality of Sir George Grey, twice Governor, thereafter private citizen, superintendent of one of the nine provinces, member of the legislature, premier, and always public benefactor and a name to conjure by among the best men and women of New Zealand. Twice in its early history he found the Maoris at war with the settlers, inflicting defeats on them and on blue-jackets and regular soldiers, as well as on the loyal natives. He not only brought the wars to an end but conciliated the rebels, and so won

their affections that they have since co-operated with the whites even in the work of legislation. In 1844, a fiery young chief, Hone Heke, son-in-law of the great Hongi (well known in New Zealand story), cut down the flag-staff from which the Union Jack waved at Korovaoeka, the only town then in New Zealand. A man-of-war and a military force were sent, and the flag-staff, now plated and shod with iron, was again erected; but Heke attacked and took the town, cut down the flag-staff and drove the military and marines to their ships. Subsequent successes on his part threatened the very life of the young colony, for the Maoris displayed extraordinary military capacity in constructing pahs or fortifications, impregnable except against artillery; but the new Governor acted with promptitude and inflicted a defeat on them which so destroyed Heke's prestige that they sought for peace. A few years afterwards the brave chief, dying of consumption, left by will his lands to Governor Grey. It is almost needless to say that he, instead of taking possession, made them over to the relatives. Heke, in his last illness, said despondently that he "saw his people, as in a vision, drying up as a river when there is no rain," and spoke pathetically of the time when the missionaries would ring their bells for the Maoris, but there would be none to come to hear the gospel preached. His countrymen are still inclined to prophesy their own extinction, saying: "As the English grass kills the Maori grass, and the English rat kills the Maori rat, so must the Maori himself be swept from the fern home of his fathers by the Pakeha." I hope not. They now form, especially in the northern island, an integral portion of the community with recognized rights; and, as it is not considered at all improper for a white man to marry

a Maori girl, they are more likely to become absorbed in the common New Zealand race than to disappear without leaving any sign. They are a fine, stout-limbed, stuggy race, of rather less than medium height, far superior to the poor aborigines of Australia, and there is therefore little or no race antipathy or social chasm between them and the "Pakeha." In his aims at raising them as far as possible to our standard of thought and life, Grey found a noble co-laborer in Bishop Selwyn, the school-fellow and lifelong friend of Gladstone. Selwyn's name is indelibly associated with all that is good in the early history of New Zealand, but Grey has been a still greater force on the right side down almost to the present day, in social, educational and political, as well as in Christian work. Florence Nightingale's testimony is striking, but even more so is that of the Maoris in the government quarries, who had been instructed under his orders in skilled stone work. She wrote to him in 1863: "You are nearly the only Governor, except the great Sir John Lawrence, who has condescended to qualify yourself by learning the languages, the physical habits and the ethnographical peculiarities of the races you had to govern." They wrote to him, when they heard that Government House at Auckland had been destroyed by fire in 1848 and offered stones for rebuilding. Their second letter ended thus: "This is our thought relative to the stones for you; but there must be no payment given us. This is a token of affection from the people of the quarry to our Governor. Enough."

The South island has been the scene of interesting colonization experiments, semi-ecclesiastical in character. The New Zealand Company had made its first settlements on the shores of Cook Straits, and had ap-

parently fallen between two stools as regards churches and schools. At Wellington, now the capital, no provision had been made for these, and the settlers complained bitterly; whereas subsequently, at Nelson, provision was made, but so many denominations claimed and received a share of the fund that it was of little practical use to any. The company therefore resolved that its next settlements should consist at the outset of members of one church, as far as possible, and that the fund for supplying religious and educational needs should be entrusted to them. To the Anglican Church was assigned the settlement of the Province of Canterbury, and to the Free Church of Scotland the settlement of Otago. The cities of Christchurch and Dunedin, the capitals of the two provinces, each of them fully as important as a centre of industry and thought as the present capital, Wellington, or the old capital, Auckland, are the monuments of this movement. Christchurch, the beautiful "City of the Plains," is still thoroughly English in character and tone, and predominantly Anglican in its general ecclesiastical life. All its streets are named after the sees of the Church of England, and its cathedral is planned on the best Anglican model. Dunedin, again, is more hilly than Edinburgh, and almost as Scottish at heart. Captain William Cargill, a retired officer of the 74th Regiment, a reputed descendant of the stout Covenanter, Donald Cargill, led the first colonists to their new home. They were a noble company, very different from Klondike adventurers, inflamed with the "*auri sacra fames*." "The leaders of the expedition and the more earnest and intelligent among them were inspired with something akin to a daring enthusiasm which carried them forward in the sweat of toil and in the light of faith to the work of founding

a colony, which they believed would be a model Christian state and a leavening power among the lands, because interpenetrated with Christian principles and resting on a basis of righteousness and truth. From the outset they aimed at a spiritual as well as at a material occupancy of the land."* One of the consequences was that "for full ten years the taint of crime was hardly found within their borders." There was a gaol, but the prisoners were either runaway sailors or persons committed for trifling offences; and these found their quarters so pleasant that the gaoler's only threat, when he let them go outside, for one reason or another—perhaps to see a football match—was that "if they didn't get back by sundown, they would be locked out for the night!" The threat, it is said, always proved effectual. For thirteen years Captain Cargill held his position as leader of the community. The beautiful drinking fountain in Dunedin is a monument to his memory; and his name lives in Mount Cargill, which overlooks the harbor, and Inver Cargill, the capital city of the Southland province, which, originally part of Otago, was politically separated from it in 1861. The ivy-clad Presbyterian churches of Dunedin, which tower up like cathedrals, are symbols of the general Scottish nationality of the people, and also of a love of the beautiful which is not always considered a characteristic of the Scottish Church. The worshippers evidently have not identified their religion with "a maximum of architectural ugliness at a minimum of cost," as the Scottish heritors were wont to do in the eighteenth century, according to Sir Walter Scott. Knox church, in particular, is a magnificent specimen of the perpendicular Gothic,

(To be continued.)

* "The Story of the Otago Church and Settlement," by the Rev. C. S. Ross; Dunedin, 1887.

THE FIRST GILL SCHOOL CITY.

THE desire to have Civics as a school study has taken a practical turn in the organization of a miniature city among the children of a city school. The organizer says, "Teachers govern by their own force of love or of stern authority. The child must obey, not because he wills, but because the teacher wills. By means of the School City, the teacher can lead the child to see the need of law and order, to construct rules for his own government, and to put them into execution, and thus to act by his own will rather than by that of the teacher. It is not mimic, moot or play government, but actual and serious government by the children, under the guiding and shaping hand of the teacher. While the child, not the teacher, should be the concern of a school, I think in this case the child and teacher will be helped alike. It will help the teacher to keep in sight the first and greatest object of education, which is to train the individual to govern himself wisely according to the high principles of morality. I should place in the reach of the children a list of the things required to be done by the laws of the land, which they and all citizens must observe, and have them legislate concerning those things only which pertain to child life and school. In shaping this school government after that of the municipality or county in which the school is located, the child will be made accustomed to perform duties in the prescribed and legal way, but it should be part of the aim of the school government to acquaint the people, through the children, with new and improved methods, rather than to perpetuate old forms.

In a few days its pupils had all been turned into citizens of a School City, and were governing themselves under a mayor and common council,

elected by themselves. The school numbered eleven hundred children and was divided into boroughs. The officers of the city were elected and the departments worked in the regular way. Equal rights and responsibilities prevailed among the citizens, and there was no distinction as to sex, either in holding office or voting. Each class was an election district. The beginning of the work of organization was the holding of primary elections for the selection of delegates for the city convention. Two candidates were named for each of the offices of mayor, controller and president of the board of aldermen. At election, each class casts its own ballots in, and after the installation of the successful candidates, heads of executive departments and members of their forces were appointed by the mayor. The board of health consisted of its president, a teacher and the commissioner of police. The board of health appointed its inspectors; the commissioner of police selected a chief, a captain for each class, and policemen; and the judges named a clerk of the court. Civil service rules were to have been used to regulate all appointments, but they were not ready in time.

The children entered heartily into the spirit of the thing, and strove earnestly for promotion. Mayor Abrahams, the head of the first Gill School City, a boy of fourteen, commanded widespread respect by his diligence, patriotism and stern impartiality. Only one trial occurred, but that was conducted with the utmost gravity and decorum. A police captain was convicted of "conduct unbecoming a gentleman and an officer" while the school was away on a picnic. He was dismissed from the service and went forth weeping.

The first laws drawn up by the city

council are worth recording. They were as follows :

HEALTH LAWS.

1. The one who is not suitable in cleanliness when coming to school will be compelled to pick up all paper wasted during the day.

2. If any one continues coming unclean after receiving two warnings, a charge for expulsion will be made.

3. If anyone has any disease that the teacher does not know anything about, he or she will be expelled.

4. If anyone throws any garbage on the stairs or in the yard, he or she will be expelled.

5. If anyone comes to school un-

tidy, a paper will be pinned on his or her dress which will state the punishment.

STREET CLEANING LAWS.

1. If anybody throws any paper or skins in any part of the school a charge will be made which will be brought before the judge, and a punishment given accordingly.

2. If anyone is caught defacing or in any way destroying the property of the city which is placed in the school, a charge of expulsion will be brought.

3. If any officer shall find a boy or girl defacing the sidewalk in front of the school, a charge will be brought.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Deliver not the tasks of might
To weakness, neither hide the ray
From those, not blind, who wait for
day,
Tho' sitting girt with doubtful light.

"That from Discussion's lips may fall
With Life, that, working strongly
binds—
Set in all lights by many minds,
So close the interests of all."

THE news that the Rev. Prof. Clark, D.C.L., of Trinity College, Toronto, has been elected vice-president of the Royal Society of Canada, will be welcome to all the readers of this paper and we beg to tender him our hearty congratulations upon the honor which has thus been conferred upon him. The position which Dr. Clark has been called upon to fill is one of great importance, for it is the highest literary position in the Dominion of Canada. No more fitting choice than that of Professor Clark could have been made, for there is hardly another man in Canada who holds such a high rank in the realm of literature at the present time.

In a circular from the Education Department, May 25, '98, it is stated that no Primary Certificates will be issued after 1898. This

may have some effect let us hope in retaining teachers of experience in our schools. *We hope that it may.* There is a large number of Primary Certificates in Ontario, and the department takes care to tell all concerned that the supply can be kept up by the power vested in the Minister.

The approaching convention of the Dominion Association of Teachers promises to be an interesting one, the programme being likely to be such an announcement as will induce the attendance of a large representation of teachers from every Province. The rates on the Inter-colonial Railway will be single fare from Montreal, and possibly considering the importance of the event, the Canadian Pacific and Grand Trunk may be finally induced to give the same rates from Toronto and the

West, even without the usual guarantees. No pleasanter locality could have been selected for the gathering than the old city founded by Cornwallis, and, though it is far from being central, there are many attractions that will go far to counterbalance this objection. The first week of August will find Nova Scotia looking its best, and with the sea breezes from the Atlantic, Halifax, the capital, will present a summer aspect which can hardly be equalled in any other part of the country. The trip by the Intercolonial is one of the most attractive of all railway routes on the continent. From Montreal this railway runs through a fertile region as far as Ste. Hyacinthe, and thence by the Drummond County Railway to old Quebec. From Quebec the route runs along the River St. Lawrence, thence along the beautiful Metapedia Valley to the shores of Bay Chaleur, the eastern sections of New Brunswick and through the interior of Nova Scotia. On arriving in Halifax our teachers will find every preparation made for their reception, and to avoid any misunderstanding, communication should be made at the very earliest after reaching a decision about attending, to the Secretary, Mr. A. McKay, Supervisor of Schools for the City of Halifax. The President of the Association is Dr. A. H. Mackay, Superintendent of Education, Nova Scotia, and either of these gentlemen will see that all information is conveyed to those proposing to attend. Many topics of the utmost interest to our teachers as Canadian teachers are to come up for discussion. The question of a closer professional relationship among the teachers of all the Canadian Provinces, and an assimilation of methods and progress-lines is likely to occur again and again throughout the proceedings, and thus the best of results are expected to come from the great conference.

Narrowness is to be avoided in education as in any other calling, profession, or walk in life. Our little world becomes very small indeed when we see no further than the Provincial. Our land is wide, but it ought not to be wider than our sympathies. From Victoria to Halifax is a long journey, but we believe it is not so long a journey as to keep some teachers from finding their way to the shores of the east to give a summer's greeting to their brethren of the Maritime Provinces. Possibly the time may come when delegates shall be chosen from the various local associations, and when the expense of travelling so far shall be shared by all our teachers. In the meantime we must do what we can under the circumstances, until the Dominion Association matures in its strength and has more resources at its command.

In connection with the national character of this gathering, we would make a reference to our own journal, *THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY*. As an exponent of the wider sympathies among our teachers we have been seeking to reach out towards the assimilation of our Canadian systems, though the reforms we have been speaking out in behalf of are neither drastic nor revolutionary. As a possible organ of the teachers of the whole Dominion, we would willingly do our share in this work of assimilation of interests. What transpires in one Province of our fair Dominion should be of interest in any other Province. The method that one teacher has adopted with success in British Columbia is surely worth being known by the teachers of Quebec or Prince Edward Island. And it is our desire that occurrences of this kind should be made known all over the Dominion. We have no wish to establish a central factory of methods or an educational reformer's bureau

in which the short cuts to an examination and the *finesse* of school-room empiricism are to be made of more importance than the first principles of the true education. But we do wish to be of service to our brethren all the same, and it is our expectation that we will continue to have their sympathies with us, and possibly their support besides. The third convention of the Dominion Association of Teachers meets this year at Halifax. No more important educational gathering than this has been held for some time in Canada. To the teachers who expect to be present we present our greeting beforehand. A pleasant midsummer holiday is before them. But we would also like to be acquainted with them beforehand, and to all those of them who send in their names to us, we will forward to their address a copy of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY for six months *free of charge*. We propose to give every attention to the proceedings of the convention, and it will gratify us very much if our plan of previous introduction be adopted and our sphere of usefulness be thereby possibly enlarged. Our magazine continues to gain in favor, and the encouragement we have already received is our only excuse for urging a wider acquaintance among all our teachers from Vancouver to Halifax.

If the honor lately conferred upon Dr. Parkin by Her Majesty is to be looked upon as the first of such honors conferred upon a Canadian schoolmaster, we have to congratulate our *confrere* with all the warmth of professional pride and sympathy; and if it has been conferred upon him for any other reason we congratulate him all the same. As the peripatetic apostle of Imperial Federation, even in face of the somewhat dubious success of his mission, he may be ranked as one of the later apprentices in the

art of empire-builders, and on this account it is perhaps that he has come to his reward. But we teachers cannot but be all the more gratified with the event, since being a schoolmaster he did not miss his reward. The teacher has but few rewards on earth. He has his pay, that is true; but as the bulk of it comes from the State, no further reward may be looked for from that quarter, and as the rest of it, in many cases, comes from some unsympathizing, perhaps patronizing, parent, the less expected from that quarter, again the less disappointment. Dr. Parkin has been a successful schoolmaster; he has also attained to high rank as a speaker and writer; and hence in order to avoid even the semblance of making a mistake we again congratulate him as one of our most prominent Canadian publicists in presence of the honor Her Gracious Majesty has conferred upon him, and which no doubt is but a precursor of greater honors and more pronounced success.

As every teacher who has run the gauntlet of our school board must know, there are commissioners and commissioners, trustees and trustees. But there are few school boards in country or city that have not *the* school commissioner or *the* school trustee,—the man who feels himself more than qualified to rule everything he can put his hand to as a public aspiring servant,—the man who, if he knows little about anything in particular knows all about education in the general, from the manner in which our teachers should conduct themselves in matters great or small, to how their school departments and school classes ought to be conducted. His previous training and occupations may have led *the* school commissioner as far away as possible from the niceties of the teacher's calling, he may have been kept busy all his days in

weighing flour or in kneading it into dough, or in some other honorable but unspeakably unintellectual pursuit; but once let him loose as a successful aspirant to the higher latitudes of the school board, and you have at once of a certainty the very demon of compound ignorance on the rampage. As he proceeds within and without the precincts of the board-room to utter his jeremiads over the insufficiency of this method and the inefficiency of that teacher, as he pours forth his complaints in the hearing of his colleagues, or even of some unfortunate principal or head-master who has spent his whole life time in contrasting the true pedagogic with the false,—as he utters, with a strong leaning to exaggeration, his paltry experiences of the teaching and teachers of his earlier days, firing them off as contradistinctions and contradictions to the present way of doing things, his obtuseness becomes all the more obtuse, his ignorance all the more of an ignorance that flouts the laws of logic and good sense as a heinous offence against the majesty of the invisible darkness of his own puffed-up soul. One is always wondering how, like a very fly in amber, he came to be a school commissioner, and how he comes to be continued as one. The man's ignorance is a public nuisance, and, being such, why should the public not demand the removal of its cause? Are the public satisfied that he should remain a school commissioner to worry the best until it becomes the worst? Do the public really elect him? Ah! there is the main question, and when the constitution of some of our school boards is investigated, as well as the manner of their elections, we will not marvel at the presence of ignorance out of a flour-barrel, or even out of an ash-heap, finding its way within their higher latitudes. The Quebec Legislature still refuses to enact that a

school commissioner must be able to read and write; and how can we expect any Province to enact that the man who knows everything simply because he knows nothing, the man who is so ignorant that he does not know that he is ignorant, should be discouraged by every means possible from taking office as a school commissioner or any other commissioner. And yet if the teacher could only get rid of the school commissioner what joy would there be in the land!

And what about the good men and true who give of their time and patience, without fee or reward, to the school affairs of the parish? That our school boards are comprised of such every teacher in the land is prepared to confess. These men are the stand-by of the teacher, though the teacher often wonders why these same good men and true put up with the idiosyncrasies of the man who, out of the satiety of his ignorance, brazens the best of them and makes his terms with all and sundry, from the chairman to the secretary, with an effrontery that would be amusing if it were not so dangerous to the school interests of the district. To the average school trustee, who has the interest of our schools at heart, all honor is due. He is a factor in the well-being of town, village or parish, and deserves the best word in the gift of his fellow-citizens. With what sympathy he enters into the discussion of the teacher's difficulties, without any pressing of advice or authority, and with what satisfaction do the teachers make him their confidant! With what truthfulness does he lay his suggestions for the good of the school before his colleagues! He is not very learned, but he knows it, and bows to the advice of those who have made education a life investigation. He will sometimes speak of the past, but only to make the progress of the present appear all the more of

a progress. In the making of appointments he has to give heed to the canvassers, but when they all have had their say he draws his own conclusions as to the ability of the respective candidates, and lets the brothers and sisters and cousins and aunts of the defeated candidates think what they may of his action, as long as he secures for the district the best teacher. In this he differs from the board's master, the man who is ever hugging his compound ignorance as an easily asserted sufficiency. The parish or municipality needs the services of the best teachers, and the good and true trustee puts forth every effort to secure them, while Master Ignorance is content with the cheapest teachers, and crows over his success in presence of the tax-payer whenever he has a chance. If a difficult case of discipline is mentioned in the hearing of the former, he labors to reduce the frictional points; whereas his lordship of the ash-heap is always on the *qui vive* to urge the chairman or the secretary to call a special meeting of the board so that he may have another opportunity of adding fuel to the flame that illuminates his own self-importance.

An author has written on the subject, "The Monarchs I have known," and a most entertaining volume it is; but when the teacher, perhaps taking the hint from what we have said, comes to the authorship of "The School Trustees I have met," what a scramble will there be for the early editions of the book, and what a number of libel suits will there be on hand for the knights of the flour-barrel and the ash-pit.

In looking over an advertisement the other day that announced a vacancy in one of our schools, we were struck with a clause in it which, in somewhat dubious English, declared that "References are no good." Now, if references are "no good" under

such circumstances, what sort of things are to be considered good when application for a situation is made by any of our teachers. The testimonial, we all know, is pretty well played out. A man or woman who has been baptized in a Christian Church, or who has any lingering attachment to one or two pews in any place of worship, has only to make application in the right quarter to be supplied with a bushel of testimonials that will set either of them up in life for any calling, as long as no further enquiry is made of their antecedents. In a word, the testimonial has run to seed through the good-heartedness of our clergymen. Then some boards have declared that they will have no personal calling on members of the board, and one corporation has even gone the length of saying that the remotest approach to a canvass will be visited with condign punishment. What then is the poor teacher in need of a situation going to do when on the point of applying for a vacancy, with "references no good," testimonials dubious, and all attempts at personal introductions prohibited? Is the knight of the ash-heap to have it all his own way, and continue to claim that the best teacher is the cheapest teacher and *vice versa*. In a remote section of one of the provinces the commissioners used to do away with even the written application. An advertisement was inserted in the paper, and trustees and candidates met on a given day in a given hall, and the various vacancies in the township put up at auction; lowness of salary and "good looks" no doubt being the counterpoise as the candidates came up respectively to be weighed in the balance.

But now that references are declared to be "no good," which means that no man should be called upon to give his private opinion about a candidate for a vacancy in any of our schools

(for that is surely what the declaration means), but must engross his recommendation in a testimonial that reads well both ways, are we coming to the auction room plan of selecting our teachers, or to the competitive examination method? The latter still lingers in some parts of the world, and would be well enough in its way were it not for the kind of teacher it so often selects—the best scholar, but by no means the best teacher. And so the query still remains, What are our school commissioners and trustees to do while selecting “the fit and proper person,” and what is the teacher to do when standing as a candidate for a vacancy?

The courtesies of life ought never to be set aside either at church or market, and this is as true when these courtesies are forgotten by a teachers' association as by an uptown club. When a letter is sent to the secretary of a society, some kind of an answer should be sent by way of return; and when the secretary of any of our teachers' associations fails to follow this general rule, the association should take note of his delinquency. From what one of our correspondents says in regard to the seeming lack of courtesy on the part of one of our local associations, we have been induced to refer to the matter in the general, having every reason to believe, however, that the case in point is an exception, and as such will never be repeated. As to the lack of courtesy shown to the gentleman who so kindly offered to give a lecture to the association, and was so cavalierly treated, we have nothing to say. The gentleman has the punishment for such an offence in his own hands. In regard to what our correspondent calls the “slate” affair, I think the less now said or done the better. All the parties to that scandalous scheme should now be heartily ashamed of themselves,

and if they are not then all the worse for their sense of shame.*

The question of a Canadian literature, its existence or non-existence, its growth or decadence, comes up every now and again for discussion in our literary circles, and the visit which our countryman, Mr. Gilbert Parker, lately made to the city of Quebec, brought the question out in relief at the banquet he gave to several of his friends. Our teachers are, and ought to be, interested in all questions pertaining to the developments of our common country, since it is through them, in large measure, the coming race is to be imbued with the right kind of patriotism, the true love of country. We have, therefore, no apology to make to them for referring from time to time to the subject of literature in general and literature in Canada in particular. The Parker Banquet has emphasized the present phases of literature in the country, as much from the enthusiasm of the brilliant assembly of the more distinguished sons of Canada he was able to bring together of an evening in the Chateau Frontenac, as from what was said on the festal occasion. The host, on addressing his friends in a speech of unusual eloquence, declared that he found himself in both a disadvantageous and an advantageous position. He had desired at first to maintain his private capacity, though by his proposal of the toast of the Queen it might seem as if he had wished to give the dinner a public character. Such was not the case, however, though as private people they could not divest themselves of their character as citizens of the great British Empire, of which Canada formed a most important part. His sole aim, he said, was not simply to please, nor had he come here with any ulterior objects, such as digging out from Quebec's ancient fortifica-

tions that which might prove to be fuel to his flames. He came here solely with a message of comradeship and affection, based upon the kindness shown him in Quebec by gentlemen who had held out a welcome to him before he had done anything, even in adverse criticism, much less in favorable notice of the attractions of Quebec. He referred to a letter which he had received that day from his father, now ninety-five years of age, who said that his heart warmed towards Quebec because sixty-five years ago he was stationed here with his regiment of artillery, and had engaged a French tutor to teach him to speak and write the French language. A new world had thus, he said, been opened to him, not alone of landscape or of territory, but of language and of literature. He could thus claim an acquaintanceship of sixty-five years of comradeship in Quebec when he came here some time ago, an unknown literary man. When you, Mr. Premier, he said, addressing the Hon. Mr. Marchand, can lay aside the cares of political life to be with us to-night, it demonstrates that in one Parliament at least there is no rivalry, though emulations, and that is the parliament of letters. Whatever concern a nation may feel on other matters, it may agree to worship the attributes of beauty and truth. In Quebec, of all parts of the British Empire, he believed that the Government assumed an affectionate, paternal attitude in regard to its literary men. In England, such a relation existed to this extent that, when old and decrepit, literary men of renown might throw themselves upon the bounty of the Government

After replies had been made on behalf of the *Cercle des Dix* by Sir James Le Moine and the Hon. Mr. Marchand, Dr. Harper was called upon to speak to the toast of Literature in Canada, and is reported by

the *Morning Chronicle* as having said : "We are met here this evening to enjoy the hospitality of one who, though ennobled beyond many of us, from having an audience as wide as the world itself, over whom he may wield his pen as a wizard, and who, during a well-earned holiday, has thought fit in his generosity to do honor to one of our societies that has become of late a prominent exponent of the literary spirit as it is to be found at the present day in this old city of Quebec. And to entertainer and entertained I here make my humble obeisance as I ask you all to drink to the success of the literature of Canada that is coming to gain so much strength among her sons and daughters. Our host himself has already drunk of the cup which the author who would be a true literary man must ever drink of—the cup from which we all must drink if we would keep the literary spirit within us pure and good and true. He has drunk of the wildering flavor of the scenery of his native land and the romance of her early days ; ay, he has even lingered within the precincts of Cape Diamond and the Laurentides to drink of the very best of that kind of flavor that is to be had in the world ; and to-day we rejoice with him to find that the true patriotism which such nourishment is ever producing in us, has also begotten in him that literary pride and acumen which claims as its own the purity of genius itself. For surely I may venture to say in your hearing, without even the semblance of flattery, that the high dignity and moral tone of his workmanship as a literary man, the purity of thought and diction that marks whatever comes from his pen, prove him to be the true man of letters, and a true Canadian besides. Were I to speak of Canadian literature at any length, I would have to specialize it, though in so doing I would probably forget to

specialize it sufficiently to suit the palate of everybody. There is a literature being produced in Canada which some say is not Canadian literature, just as there is a so-called Canadian literature that is not literature at all, but the cataloguing of an over-glorified personality. And were I to attempt to specialize our Canadian literature, I would have to specialize it as it has been specialized in our host, a Canadian writer who writes for Canadians and the whole world besides. I would have to trace its growth as it has been traced in his training, in the love he has for his native land and the desire he ever has to give voice to the gratitude within his own soul towards the land to whom, as he confesses, he owes so much. The land of the maple leaf is his land as it is ours; and if the flavor of the rose has more of an influence on him now than before, as some say it is beginning to have, it is as the flavor of the heather that still lingers about my own speech. Cosmopolitan if he is becoming, he is as much a son of Canada as ever—as much as ever a son of the land whose benign influences are emblemized, as a cosmopolitanism in itself, in the intertwining of the rose and the thistle, the shamrock and the *fleur de lis*. Which comes first, the bird or the egg, is a solemn problem, as it is said, to the owl; and which comes first, the right kind of *l'amour de la patrie* or the literary spirit which fosters it would perhaps be a philosophical problem too severe for us at this trying moment. But I may safely escape it as did the doctor when he made reply to the old lady's query about the possible effects of a certain hair-dye. In a word, I am not sure that patriotism comes from the writing of poetry, but I am sure that the writing of poetry, the true kind of poetry, the producing of the literature that is literature, the true kind of literature, the true kind of Canadian literature, or

any other kind of true literature, comes from nature's sweetest breath that lingers by our hillsides and our valleys, in our woodland and smiling campagnas, by the singing of the brook or the roar of the rapid—ay, comes from that reverent adoration of nature which old Mother Nature herself has taught us—comes from the sweetness of the environment of our own home, where 'Poesy hums her olden song and plays with history's fingers to assure the tune.' Yes, from these the literary spirit is fed and fostered until it feels that there is no such breath of the pure and the good, no such flavor of the beautiful to be found in any other land; and it is on these I think our host has fed, 'whereby he hath now become so great.' And when I look around this table, sir, when I mark on my fingers the numbers of the members of the *Cercle des Dix* to find that there is within its limits room for more than ten, I feel that beyond it there is room for all Canadian *litterateurs* who follow the literary faith our host has followed—when I think what good old Quebec has done for all of us as literary men, insufficient as our work has been, at the advice of the old song I take my bonnet off my head, and say, God bless Quebec, God bless Canada, God bless the good our Canadian literature has wrought so far in all our hearts, to make us love our country all the more, to make us sing her praises all the better."

Arbor Day, as a Canadian institution, has been anything but a success. As an exotic from the United States, its fate is merely what some people have expected from the first. The very spelling of its name is a sort of insult to our ways of doing things, and when we come to inquire into its origin and the manner of its begetting and perpetuation, our sympathies get weaker and weaker for its ceremonies

as they come round every year. In a word the day has become all ceremony. It was born in the make-believe of a politician, and fostered in the tawdry attire of a newspaper paragraph, and now the saying is heard, out of hearing of the newspaper man, "What is the good of it anyhow?" The ceremony was to be an encouragement to the work, but now it has become nearly all the work that is done, with its garden party invitations from city councils and departments of public works. Meantime, with the planting of a few trees, with a bow from the Hon. Mr. Johns to the Hon. Mr. Secretary, our forests are going to wreck at the hands of our lumbermen, and not a man has taken to the cultivation of timber as a source of wealth to the country more than in the days before Arbor Day was spoken about. Why should our cities and towns not be beautified with ornamental trees? And we answer the query by asking, Why? Why should not every school-house and church edifice in our land be enshrined in a shade-spot of maple and birch? And we answer the query by asking, Why? What has Arbor Day, with all its ceremony and hob-nobbing done for our cities and towns and village streets, for our school-houses and church buildings? Nothing? Well, no, not exactly nothing; for Sir Henry Joly would say that such was not the case, remembering the champagne festivities and the flow of eloquence and all the sweet words of expectancy, that have showered plentifully on the few trees planted on a hill-side never afterwards seen, or on some government grass-plot that needed no shade. But what has Arbor Day done for the spread of an improved skill in the art of planting and pruning and stripping—what has it done for arboriculture and the rearing of farm plantations, such as are to be found in European countries? Were the proper care given to

the growing of trees on the farm, there might have to be a mortgage on the place as now, but there would also be the prospect of its final discharge in the maturing timber. And were the planting and protecting of trees properly taught to our young people in the woodland districts, and afterwards properly encouraged by our governments in the employment of rangers and foresters, neither federal debt nor provincial debt would hang over us for long as an irremovable load.

The Outlook deals, in the following note, with a phase of the school question to which we have frequently called the attention of our readers. The same conditions exist in the United States as we have here in Canada:

The Missing Link in Education.—A meeting of teachers and parents was recently held in a town not many miles from New York. It was supposed that the audience was composed of teachers and parents, but about two and one-half thirds of the audience, if not more, were teachers, although the meeting had been advertised for at least two weeks before it was held, and the most liberal invitation extended to the women of the community. The title of the organization under whose auspices the meeting was held would indicate that it was a co-operative organization of mothers and teachers. It is impossible to understand the lack of active interest of mothers and fathers in the subject of education; for certainly this interest is passive so long as it means only the placing of a child in a school which ranks according to their standard, and then dropping the whole sense of responsibility unless some abnormal occasion arises that compels consultation on the part of the parents with the teacher.

It is very evident that no speaker

should address any body assembled for child study, or any subject relating to the education of children, with the belief that any special number of mothers are present. Experience has taught that it is the teacher who has this active interest in education; that the mother's activity too often is simply in voicing complaint, or interfering, to the detriment of the child's education, with the system which the teacher, who is naturally supposed to be an expert, has devised. How can any woman claim that she is a good mother who allows her child to attend a school where she is in doubt about the physical conditions—whether the air, light, and furniture are adapted to the needs of the child? How can she consider herself a good mother if the teacher of her child is to her a comparative stranger. The teacher should be a co-worker in her club; the busy friend to whom she must go because she has more leisure, her friend because she is the co-educator with the mother.

Education in this country will never be what it should be until a higher money valuation is placed upon the services of a teacher, until her professional rights are recognized, until

her social position is that accorded to the other professions, until the opinion of the teacher is treated in the presence of the child with the same respect accorded to the opinion of the doctor or of the minister of the church the child attends. We have yet to learn in this country that the teaching profession is just what the public sentiment of the community makes it; its requirements are just what the public demands—no more and no less; its compensation represents the value placed upon those services by the community. This is especially true of the public school teachers by whom the mass of the children of this country are educated. This system suffers because at one extreme our taxpayers have no personal interest in the schools, merely because their children do not attend them; and at the other extreme are a mass of voters who have no educational standards, who delegate without any sense of responsibility the entire question of the education of their children to the State, rebelling only, too many of them, against the law which compels them to patronize the schools when they would have the child become a wage-earner.

CURRENT EVENTS AND COMMENTS.

THE Manitoba Normal school lately held its closing exercises, and at these exercises Governor Patterson drew attention to the success attending the efforts to make the institution under Principal McIntyre as efficient as possible. He further spoke of the pleasure he had experienced in listening to the valedictorian addresses. They were all young and hopeful, and he considered courage a part of the equipment of a teacher starting out on his or her career. Endurance and perseverance would

be required to keep them in sight of the high ideals which they had placed before them during their stay in the normal class. He impressed on the teacher the necessity of cultivating tact, which means almost everything. The profession upon which they were about to enter was a very important one. It would require constant study and cultivation, after arriving on the scene of their labors, to make them thoroughly competent. He urged the students to inculcate principles of patriotism among the

children over whom they would be placed.

The Rev. Dr. Bryce also spoke at the above exercises, making the statement that the attendance was the largest that the school had experienced. Two important steps, he said, had been taken recently—the importation of teachers from the east had been prohibited, and a certain fair salary has been guaranteed to all teachers. Another change was that teachers henceforth to obtain a first-class certificate will have first to secure a third and a second.

The annual reports from the various provinces may be taken as a record of progress, and while there is not much to be said about some of the fields, Ontario keeps well to the front with Manitoba, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, making fair seconds. When the Quebec government gets its Education Bill passed in both houses, many are beginning to wonder what the pace will be. The system in British Columbia, like that of Prince Edward Island, is too much hedged in by the prejudices that are born of isolation, and hence the educational progress of both of these provinces can only be measured by what they themselves have been and what they may yet become as educational centres. Still it is well for us to learn of the more remote sections of our land as well as of those nearer the larger centres of population.

In New Brunswick there is still some unrest in connection with the management of the University there. Some months ago we referred to the matter, and gave sundry reasons why it had failed to become the centre of the educational sympathies of that province. These reasons have been enlarged upon by the *Educational*

Review, with special reference to the process of granting degrees.

"Want of discretion," says our contemporary, "in conferring honorary degrees and the eagerness with which they have been conferred upon some who have doubtful claims upon them, and the denial to others who have been life-long friends to the University or who have spent their lives in preparing students for it," and when such is said by one of its own graduates there must surely be something in what we said in milder form.

The whole "tale to be told," however, has no end to it for some time, if the plain speaking of the *Review* should give offence, and yet what need the *Review* care, if it only succeeds in bringing about a better state of affairs.

"The resolution of Mr. Fowler," continues that periodical, "to withdraw the grant from the New Brunswick University, will do good if it leads to enquiry with a view to reform, or it will work evil as a bad advertisement for that institution of learning. Notwithstanding that large classes from the high schools matriculate at the University each year, it attracts few of them to enter upon a full course; and while the other colleges in the Maritime Provinces are said to be flourishing, the one in Fredericton does not progress, in the matter of attendance at least, as its friends would desire. Various reasons are assigned for this, among which may be mentioned:—the change from a three years' course to one of four years, which was regarded by many as being in the interests of the faculty rather than of the students, many of whom can not well afford the extra year's attendance. The abolition of residency for a time, coupled with some unseemly wrangles between students and faculty, had a tendency to cause uneasiness on the part of

many parents who desired supervision for their boys. The failure of some of the faculty to observe the signs of the times by showing themselves in public to uphold the claims of the University for recognition and to reach out and canvass for students as is being done by other seats of learning. The adverse criticism of the newspapers from time to time regarding the management which carried more weight as it was believed to emanate from within the University itself. The failure of the college to command the sympathy and support of the teachers of the Province, who should be its most powerful allies, by denying, to all except graduates, the right of representation in the senate, and by permitting matriculation by two examinations, the papers for which are set by different examiners, and are believed to vary greatly in difficulty."

There is also a repetition of our own statements made from time to time when the *Review* takes the legislators of New Brunswick to task, as we occasionally seek to advise the utilitarian with his dollar and cent gauge in hand. "We would like to see the criticisms on our University and its work take a higher tone than in the recent discussions in the halls of the Assembly and elsewhere," and so would we, even when the status of our colleges is being discussed by men who profess themselves to be educationists and Canadians. The value of such a training as a university gives cannot be measured by mere dollars and cents; so that when it is said it costs the province so many hundred dollars to educate one student, we venture the humble opinion that those who make such statements do not take the trouble to form a proper conception of the far-reaching effects of such an education. Again, it is asserted that

students, on completing their education, go elsewhere, and the province loses the services of those whom she has educated at considerable expense. Now it should be a source of pride that when we send our sons and daughters abroad, we send them fully equipped to take honorable and responsible positions—men and women who are of Anglo-Saxon lineage, and who will assert themselves in the struggle of Anglo-Saxon development no matter in what portion of the world their lot may be cast. A province has a right to expect that the sons she has educated to the best of her ability will remain with her and assist to build up her institutions. They have done so where an incentive to remain was furnished. Take away from the professions to-day the product of the culture and training of the University, and there would be a blank that would lower us in the scale of nations to such an extent that no one would venture to estimate the loss in dollars and cents, and so, in making the particular a general, we may all join with the New Brunswicker in wishing an enlarged sphere of sympathy and usefulness for his university.

The Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia is not a man to stay by the old when the introduction of the new is possible, and hence in his report he makes many valuable suggestions pointing to the fostering of the modern methods of imparting instruction that make for the mental improvement of the populace. He must, however, guard against the whimsicalities that too often attend the introduction into our schools of manual training, cookery, housewifery, wood work and gardening. He once tried to convert the Ontario teachers to his views on spelling reform, and did not fail in his task because he was not sincere, but be-

cause he had forgotten to look beyond the surface idiosyncrasies of the English language, to find the intellectual bottom its study has given to the Anglo-Saxon race. The school has but *one* function, and if that one function be held in suspense through the introduction of any subject that merely takes the eye, then is there a deadly wrong being perpetrated against the schools, and an injustice to the community. The true education has for its pedagogic the leading of the child back to first principles of conduct whether of body, mind or soul; and whatever is not such a leading back to first principles has no part in the true education.

There is the true ring, however, about the advice which Dr. Mackay gives in these words, and it would be well that every teacher in Canada should read them: "The rural teacher needs special skill in organization, but has also special opportunities of interesting his scholars by illustrations from the common objects of the country. It is desirable that in the training colleges care should be taken to show students that much which will give life and interest to their teaching is ready to their hand in a country district. It is sometimes forgotten that one of the most natural and fruitful methods of education is to train the powers of observation, and to build up intellectual and scientific interests round the natural objects of daily experience. Children are naturally interested in flowers, trees, and animal life, and in country schools an observant teacher, who is fond of such subjects, and has properly prepared himself by studying them, can find in the object lesson a far more powerful instrument of early education than can be drawn from the more lifeless substitutes on which the town teacher is sometimes bound to rely. Much depends on the im-

provement of the education in the village school, and on a turn being given to its teaching which will open the eyes of the children to the significance and beauty of surrounding nature. The country child has many advantages of which the town bred child is unhappily deprived, but these advantages will not be used or appreciated unless the teacher himself realizes and seizes them."

The teachers of New Brunswick hold their Institute this year on the 28th of June. It will continue for three days, for which an excellent programme has been carefully prepared. It was thought at one time that there might have been an amalgamation with the Dominion Association this year, but, as it is, there will be no interference, the one with the other, in the matter of their respective conventions.

One of the school inspectors of the Maritime Provinces has decided to adopt the method that has been adopted in the Province of Quebec with a fair amount of success. He goes a little bit further than the inspectors of Quebec, and proposes to organize the teachers and school officers in each parish in his inspectorate into an association to deal, not only with the internal work of the schools, but to interest and obtain the co-operation of parents in the work, as well as to bring about a better understanding between them and teachers regarding the scope and nature of their respective responsibilities.

Inspector Dewers, of St. Johns, Quebec, has been doing an excellent work in his conferences with teachers and pupils, and his example will, no doubt, have an influence for good over the French communities of the whole province. The inspectors' conference is now a government

affair, all the inspectors being required to organize one in every district in their municipality. Mr. Dewers has also arranged a programme of subjects that are to be brought up for discussion *seriatim* at these conferences, the items of such a programme including the methods of imparting instruction, as a guidance to the teacher, and the advocacy of an improved environment as a co-operating encouragement to the various communities. Mr. Dewers deserves well of his compatriots for the zeal he is showing in the cause of education among them.

The appointment of Thomas Stenson, Esq., M.P., to be a member of the Council of Public Instruction for Quebec, is in itself a sign of the times. Mr. Stenson has been for very many years an inspector of schools for the district of Sherbrooke, and only retired from his inspectorate when told that he could not be both a liberal candidate in the contest of 1896 and a school inspector. In that year he was returned to the House of Commons, sitting for the united counties of Richmond and Wolfe, and now that he is a member of the Council of Public Instruction he has all the influences in his hand to make his advice as an educationist of the greatest weight. As a man of great shrewdness and keenness of professional insight and enthusiasm, his counsels in our educational circles are sure to have the best of effects, now that he can press them, through his official connections, on the proper authorities that can work out the necessary reforms.

Our teachers will read with due appreciation the Abern Bill which deals with the teachers' salary question in Greater New York. The full text of this important measure is as follows: "No regular teacher in the

public schools of the boroughs of Manhattan, Bronx and Brooklyn, shall be paid a sum less than \$600 per year; nor shall any teacher after ten years of service in the public schools of said boroughs receive less than \$800 per annum; nor shall any teacher after fifteen years of service in said schools receive less than \$1,200 per annum; and no vice-principal, head of department, or first assistant in said schools shall be paid less than \$1,400 per annum; and no male teacher after twelve years of service in said schools shall receive less than \$2,160 per annum; and the salaries of women principals in said schools shall be increased by the addition of \$250 in each year until they receive the sum of \$2,500 per annum; and the salaries of male principals in said schools shall be increased by the addition of \$250 in each year until they receive the sum of \$3,500 per annum; and no woman principal of ten years' service as principal in said schools shall receive less than \$2,500 per annum. This act shall take effect immediately."

One hundred vacancies in the New York schools are waiting to be filled by would-be teachers, who cannot be examined for their positions till the board of Central examiners has been appointed by the board of education. Half a dozen principalships are also vacant, awaiting principals who cannot be appointed for the same reason.

The Greater New York has a new superintendent of schools, Mr. Jasper, so long the superintendent of schools under the old regime, having been superseded by Dr. William H. Maxwell. Dr. Maxwell enters upon his duties under the auspices of a splendid record. From what he said at the meeting of the board in reply to his reception after his election, he is fully aware of the great

responsibilities attached to his great position. He holds his office for six years, and his power is almost unlimited. He has under his charge, and directly responsible to him, all the borough superintendents and their assistants. They must come together at any time he may wish to consult or advise them regarding the schools. If they refuse to submit to his ideas, and carry out his instructions, he can prefer charges against them to the borough board. If he fails to get his contention upheld here, he can take the whole matter before the city board of education. The superintendent also has a great deal of power over the schools themselves. He has the right to visit them whenever he wishes, and to make rigid investigations as to their methods. While he cannot personally interfere with these methods, he can report to the board of education, and ask them to take action in the matter.

For the information of those who may attend the convention of the N. E. A. at Washington, in first week of July, and also as a hint to the executive of our Dominion Association, we may say that Arlington Hotel has been selected as the central official point in Washington for the National Educational Association. The officers of the association, the president, secretary and treasurer, will have rooms on the office floor of the hotel. The several states will have their headquarters on the first floor. The publishing interests will have rooms on the second floor.

Why should each province in the Dominion not have its hotel headquarters somewhere in Halifax during the meeting in August?

There is a dearth of trained teachers in Scotland. That our teachers may have further means of comparing their standing with others, we may

say, the salaries of second masters, in towns of 100,000 and over, range from \$650 to \$1,250; of assistant masters, from \$450 to \$750; of assistant mistress, from \$300 to \$600. In towns of 50,000 and over, the second masters get from \$700 to \$1,000; the assistant mistress, \$300 to \$550. In towns of 15,000 and over, the second masters get from \$650 to \$900; the assistant mistress, from \$300 to \$500. The salaries vary with the size of the school, as well as the size of the town.

Dr. George H. Hepworth, who has been investigating the Armenian massacres for the *New York Herald*, by invitation of the sultan, gives an interesting interview with the secretary general to the ministry of public instruction, concerning the educational system of Turkey. The schools were very imperfect before the advent of the present sultan. But the sultan has founded a school of laws, a civil administration school, in which pupils are taught political economy, and fitted for diplomatic work; a school of fine arts, and a commercial school. The civil schools are open to all; but the military schools are for Mohammedans only. The Greeks, Jews, and Armenians all have schools of their own, besides the schools of the missionaries. At the beginning of the present reign, there were only six military schools in the empire; but now there are 6,000 pupils in Constantinople alone. There are also schools in which the deaf and dumb are taught. In every city and village civic schools are to be found, while every small hamlet has a preacher, who also teaches the children. In Constantinople, and in many of the vilayets, the sultan has founded high schools for girls. Besides these, there is a school for the training of officers for the navy, and a school in which men are trained to become captains of merchant vessels.

The Bishop of London, lately presiding at a special meeting held at Queen's College, for the purpose of celebrating the jubilee of the foundation of the college, delivered an interesting address on the aims and objects of education. He said that education as such could only have one aim and scope under all circumstances. The great aim must be the full development of the faculties in the individual, so that they might make their best and noblest contribution to the well-being of the community. If that was the object it was quite obvious that education could not be confined to one class, and no class or body of the community could be regarded as an appendage to another. Education must be regarded as a life long process, and, if people would cut it up into various departments for the purpose of examination, they must not forget that its real object was a universal one. The question of women's education presented no special difference from that of other education. Women had a greater quickness of perception and greater appreciation of the finer sides of life and character, and they were, therefore, in many ways naturally fitted to teach things that men could not so well understand. He wanted to see all women educated for the same reason that he wanted to see men educated, so that they might make a complete contribution to the welfare of the human race.

School teaching in New Zealand does not seem to be an inviting field of labor from a financial point of view. As a result, the number of men in the work is comparatively small. Last year, out of 1,043 pupil-teachers employed, only 219 were men. Of 385 teachers in several of the districts, 226 received less (many of them very much less) than £100 a year. Of about 2,500 regular teachers in

the colony, only sixty-seven get over £300 a year. *The School Guardian* asks how, under such conditions, young men can be induced to take up the profession. Its answer is applicable to all countries. "Parents must lead their children to regard teaching as a high and honorable calling, and they must treat teachers with such respect as is due to educated men and women holding important and responsible positions. Committees must prevent teachers from being worried by frivolous and vexatious complaints. Boards should allow teachers some discretionary power, and not sap all manly independence by binding them hand and foot with irksome and unnecessary regulations. Salaries must be fair remuneration for the work required to be done."

The movement, initiated at the suggestion of the Hon. the Minister of Education for Victoria, to establish swimming clubs in connection with the State schools, seems to have become popular in Melbourne. Though only a few weeks of the bathing season remained, clubs have been established in twenty of the Metropolitan schools, and in connection with these some 1800 boys and 850 girls attend regular weekly practices. Assistance to make the work a success is afforded in many ways: 1. The Education Department allows members of the clubs to leave school for practice an hour before the ordinary closing time in the afternoon. 2. Scholars up to fifteen years of age may travel by railway for half fares, or by tramway for something less than half-fare. 3. The lessees of the various baths admit the children at one penny per head.

The educational system of China is largely responsible for China's present backwardness, as compared with western nations. There are no

national schools, nor, indeed, anything approaching a system for the diffusion of knowledge. It was not so long ago, however, that education in some parts of our own country was mainly in the hands of religious bodies. In China a very small percentage of men can read, and still fewer women. Before a child goes to school the almanac has to be consulted to find a lucky day. The stages of study are slow and laborious. Children are first taught to write characters without having the least idea as to their meaning. That comes at a later stage. Four or five years are usually occupied in the primary stage, following which come the one in which the key to the mystic characters is placed in the child's hand. In the third stage composition is the leading subject, in which style is everything—matter being altogether subordinate. History is also studied, but only the history of China.

Mrs. Sarah Wiltse talks in this wise about "dangerous games" in the kindergarten:—Take the games played in many kindergartens to-day as an example of what child study should teach us not to play. I used to allow much free play in my kindergarten; and trying to make the most of Froebel's barnyard play, I encouraged the children to personate the domestic animals; but I soon discovered one child who would be a cow every time, and a cow that hooked and kicked every animal that came near him, and when rebuked for his rough play he turned upon me with horns and hoofs, saying he was not Henry, he was a cow that knew no better. If a child with brutal tendencies would use the personation of a domestic animal for indulgence of the lower instincts, what should we expect of that child when he personated the cat in the well-known game

of the cat and the mouse? I studied the effect of the game I condemn, and am sure that the timid child is injured by personating the hunted mouse, and the child with cruel, selfish tendencies is influenced in wrong directions by such games.

The difficulties which beset Principal Peterson's pathway when he was in charge of Dundee College and University before he came to Canada to take charge of McGill University, are hardly at an end even yet, though happily for us and Dr. Peterson they are at an end for him. The latest news says that a conference has been arranged between St. Andrew's University and Dundee University College. It is hoped that the conference will lead to a settlement of the matters in dispute. Another proof of the calmer feeling prevailing may be found in the fact that at the last meeting of St. Andrew's University Council, Principal Donaldson acknowledged the great diligence and impartiality of the Marquis of Bute as Lord Rector, and the gratitude due to him by the University of St. Andrew's for his great interest in it.

Piscator writes to us: "Fishing this Easter on Dartmoor, I had for gillie a blue-eyed chubby lad of sixteen, with whom I conversed freely in the intervals of business. He had been five years at the Holne Schools, and two years at the Buckfastleigh Schools to finish up with, and had passed the sixth standard. Arithmetic? Yes, he'd done all arithmetic and mental arithmetic was his *forte*. 'I walk four miles due north from my front door, and three miles due south: how far am I from home?' 'Twelve.' 'Think again' (question repeated in other words). 'Seven.' After a third unsuccessful guess, 'That beant no arithmetic, sir.'" We have heard of a professor of one of our institutions

nearer home who is accustomed to set problems of the above kind to the rough-and-tumble urchins on our streets with a like result.

The half timer at factory and school is about to go at last with the barbarisms of the past, and if there be any of him or her in this country, we hope it will at once disappear. Mr. George Harwood, M.P., for Bolton, and himself a cotton-spinner, said in Bolton, last December: "It had been said that if children were not sent to the mills and workshops early enough, they did not acquire the requisite skill. His experience was to the contrary. For years he had refused to take half-timers, and he found that those who went at thirteen years of age picked up the manual skill, the handicraft, more quickly than those going at eleven years of age. He had tested that matter over and over again, and he was certain about it." This is the opinion of a member of Parliament whose constituents are largely operatives bent upon sending every child to work at eleven, and Sir William Houldsworth, M.P., another Lancashire member engaged in the cotton industry, said at Manchester: "He knew it was said that we had the half-time system. Well, that was obsolete and barbarous. It was a very good system at the beginning of the century, and for years after, when there was no educational system worth speaking of in the country, and when it was desirable the children should get a smattering of education rather than no education at all. It was not a system which could be defended, and the time had come when the half-time system should be swept away absolutely, and the age of the children in the schools should be very much increased."

In speaking of examinations the Hon. Dr. Ross, Minister of Educa-

tion for Ontario, has said the best that can be said of them when he calls them a guide to the student, with respect to the thoroughness of his work, and the extent and accuracy of his acquirements, and a guarantee to the public of adequate scholarship.

There is "a still, small voice" in this that is full of portent to those who may read as they run and not understand. "A national system of education fully and adequately maintained by the State, is the only solution of our present educational difficulties. The clergy and ministers of all denominations have done much to make and to mar our primary schools. Their claim to hereditary autocracy in the management of the schools is against the spirit of the age. The inalienable right of the parents to a voice in the management of the schools they maintain must be recognised. The adaptation of the dual system to secure to every child equal opportunities within the schools cannot be impossible to Christians bent upon the making of good citizens." These are not the words of the EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, but they are of such moment to all of us, that we think they should be read by the people of all the provinces.

The *Spectator* lately commenting on the movement in favor of a teaching body, to be attached directly to London university, refers to five existing types of universities. The first type is French with strong bureaucratic and over centralizing tendencies, with the attendant disadvantages of originality being strangled and free-healthy development being checked. Germany furnishes the second type. The university is in this case a free teaching institution bringing under its influence even the lower classes, with perhaps a leaning to over-specialisation, but embracing

all knowledge and expressing the highest ideal of the nation's culture. The third English variety has as its basis the college, which gives rise to strong attachments on the part of the alumni resulting from reminiscences of school discipline and the æsthetic charm which invests the college. In English universities there is a little too much of the school element and too little of the matured work of the student. But there is no ignoring their deep humanity, the lofty standard of life and their aloofness from what is vulgar, mercenary or partisan. The Scottish universities, though essentially teaching institutions like those of Germany, and though their influence permeates the nation, are much too elementary in what they teach. The American type seems to combine the advantages of the German and the English universities. Universities like Harvard and Princeton have succeeded alike in college work and maintenance of discipline, and at the same time have made efficient arrangements for post-graduate studies and research. There can be no two opinions as to the desirability of London being given a university of the last American type.

Here is a word of advice that cannot come amiss: When we visit a school, there is one request that we sometimes meet, which always strikes us very unfavorably; that is, what lesson would you like to hear? It indicates an attitude on the part of the teacher that is totally wrong—the notion that, while the visitor is present, the purpose of the school is to entertain him or win his admiration. This notion is expressed in many other ways, as by constant excuses, many explanations, etc. In other schools the visitor receives merely a pleasant word of greeting, is given a seat, and his presence is practically ignored, while evidently the work

goes on just as it would go, if he were not present. Occasionally, it happens that, without any enquiry as to what the visitor would like to hear, lessons are brought on which evidently are out of the regular order, and which at once arouse the suspicion that they have been held in reserve for precisely such an occasion. In fact, we have heard of teachers whose custom is to have special lessons in readiness to bring forward for exhibition before visitors. Usually it does not take long for one accustomed to the workings of a school to detect the fraud. For, such a proceeding can be regarded only as a fraud; and a teacher who would be guilty of it deserves instant dismissal, for he is working a moral damage to the pupils that nothing can atone for.

An intelligent visitor of a school who seeks correct knowledge concerning its operation, desires to have his presence cause the least possible departure from the ordinary course of procedure. An attempt on the part of the teacher, to "show off" in any way can hardly be disguised before an expert in school work; and it is sure to sink the teacher very much in the estimation of any visitor who is both upright and intelligent. Here, as elsewhere, honesty is the best policy. Young teachers ambitious of a good reputation, as all ought to be, will do well to give this matter careful attention.

In the Police Court on Monday morning were two boys barely in their teens who pleaded guilty to theft. Magistrate Ross was puzzled to know what punishment to inflict on the offenders; he thought they deserved one of the old time "lickings," and so expressed himself. It is a pity these boys did not receive such punishment then and there as a painful reminder of the crime they had committed. It would have been a lesson to other

boys also, and particularly to the half dozen youngsters who were in the court at the time instead of in school. The law should make provision for such punishment, for nothing has a more remedial effect on juvenile offenders, and probably older ones for that matter, than the rod wisely administered. Spare the rod and spoil the child is as true now as it ever was. It is not so generally believed, however; the result is that many children of to-day are "spoiling" through this "sparing" of the rod.

The magistrate could punish only by fine or imprisonment as an alternative. The parents paid the fine; this punished the parents but not the child, unless the child received chastisement upon going home from court, which is not at all probable.—*Barrie Advance*, May 18.

An interesting investigation has been made recently in one of our cities, as to the reasons why children of equally good capacity should rank so unevenly in their studies in the schools. Pains were taken to learn from one class of fifty-five pupils enough about their habits out of school to enable judgments to be made.

The investigation showed that thirteen boys were permitted to be on the streets at night as late as half-past nine o'clock. Not one of them ranked as high as thirtieth in the class. Another grade class of fifty-five was tried in the same manner; eight boys were habitually on the streets in the evenings. Not one of them ranked as fortieth in the class. Another class of thirty-five investigated showed that six were allowed the freedom of the streets at night, and every one of them had spent two or three years passing the fourth and fifth grades. One boy of fifteen years of age had spent nine years in getting four and a half years of schooling.

Investigation also showed that in these classes examined, eighty-five per cent. of the girls remain at home and read good books, and about one-third only of the boys ever read at all.—*The Youth's Companion*.

Death of Mr. D'Alton McCarthy ! Seldom have the public of Toronto, of Ontario, of Canada, received so violent a shock as on Monday week, when it was reported that Mr. D'Alton McCarthy had been so dangerously hurt that his life was almost despaired of. It is an event of this kind that brings home to us a conviction of the greatness of God's gifts to us. We hardly think of them while we possess them. They are a matter of course. The brave, true men, who are doing their work for the world valiantly, persistently, often making sacrifices for the public that the public never dream of—we take all their work and all their sacrifice with hardly a thought of what it has cost them, with hardly a thought of what it has done and gained for us. We criticize them, we wish they were more wise. We dwell upon their faults and failures rather than upon their achievements and successes. And then they are taken from us, and a great void seems to be opened before us which we cannot fill—which, in our shock of grief, we feel as if no one could fill, and we ask ourselves why we did not make more of God's gift while we had it. We all remember Mrs. Hemans' lines on the child's grief at the loss of her brother. "O while my brother with me played, would I had loved him more." It is not only the child that has feelings like these. Some such thoughts come to us in our grief over the loss of one of our noblest and most brilliant public men. No one will now deny to Mr. McCarthy the right to such a designation. He was a man of wonderful endowments, of a clear, strong, subtle intelligence; of a gift of speech such

as few save men of his own nationality possess ; with a versatility of genius which seemed to adapt him for any situation, and a power of work which few could equal. But beyond all this, with a social charm to which few, if any, of his contemporaries at the bar or in the parliament could lay claim. To the public at large he was probably best known as a member of parliament, and as a politician who had something in his constitution of the element that presents complete success. For ourselves we cannot but regret that Mr. McCarthy thought it necessary to separate from his party ; and we do so on no grounds of party politics, but simply because he thus lost opportunities of serving his country, to which he was so loyally devoted and which he was so well qualified to serve. But however we may cherish these regrets, or even disagree with some of his lines of action, no one at this moment will venture to doubt the sincerity of his utterances, the purity of his motives, or indeed the consistency of his actions. The mere mention of these things brings back to us the memory of the man's real and essential nobility and greatness of mind, and we feel that the mere defence of him would be an insult to his memory. To a narrower circle Mr. McCarthy was known as a great advocate, and he was second to none at the Canadian bar. The man whom, in some respects, he most resembled, and from whom, in other respects, he most differed, Mr. Christopher Robinson would probably put Mr. McCarthy before himself, even as Mr. McCarthy would certainly have preferred Mr. Robinson to himself. We could give no higher place and no higher commendation to either of these two men. The one, and the younger, is gone, the other remains. It is well to honor the dead. It is no less well to honor the living who deserve honor, although this, alas ! we are apt

to forget. If we did not forget it, our regrets would be fewer. Apart from Mr. McCarthy's gifts and qualities as a politician, his private and social characteristics were of the most attractive character. A Christian gentleman, cultivated, thoughtful, considerate and generous, he carried about him an air of refinement, intelligence and courtesy. Personally he could have had no enemies. His opponents in parliament were his friends.
—*Canadian Churchman for May.*

On a subject to which we have frequently referred, we welcome the following :

So fast have teachers been turned out by the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes of the province in recent years, that teaching has not only ceased to be profitable, it has come to rank among the least encouraging of all the vocations open to the youth of the country. It is not necessary here to enter into a discussion of the causes which have conspired to produce the result, the fact remains that for every vacancy there is a host of applicants, and many legally qualified young men and women remain for years without positions at all. In the year 1896 the number of Public School teachers in the province was 8,988, a number quite equal to the needs of the schools. During the same year the number of teachers in training was 3 021 ; of which number 1,637 were at the County Model Schools, 125 at the Normal College, 445 at the Normal School, and 814 in the Model School and kindergarten classes. The report of the Education Department shows that the number of pupils who left the High Schools to enter mercantile vocations during the year was 1,325, and those who left for agricultural pursuits, 1,139 ; the number who left for the universities and the learned professions was 959. A comparison shows the extremely

large proportion of pupils who adopt the pedagogic profession. The occupations of the parents of the pupils, so far as ascertained, were as follows : Agricultural, 9,126 ; commercial, 6,792 ; mechanical, 6,162 ; and professional, 2,487.

The over-production of teachers has had its direct result in the lowering of salaries all along the line. In almost every case there has been a steady falling off since 1893. Thus the average salary paid to male teachers throughout the province fell from \$423 in 1893 to \$400 in 1896 ; and of female teachers, from \$300 to \$291 ; in the counties the average for male teachers fell from \$383 in 1893 to \$356 in 1896, and of female teachers, from \$272 to \$262 ; in the cities the average for male teachers fell from \$911 in 1893 to \$865 in 1896, and in the towns, from \$655 in 1893 to \$616 in 1896. The only cases where there was a rise in the average were those of female teachers in the cities, where the average salary increased from \$409 to \$420, and in the towns, from \$301 to \$303 ; in both of these cases the reaction is probably due to an awakening sense of the poor policy of keeping cheap teachers just because they are cheap. In considering these figures it must not be forgotten that the calculation of the average includes salaries in the cities as high as \$1,500, in the towns as high as \$1,150, and in the counties as high as \$800. A considerable number of teachers, especially in the rural districts, receive less than \$250, and in a recent case which was brought under the notice of the writer there were upwards of 100 applications from certificate-holders for a vacancy in a school which offered \$250 per annum.

Probably the worst effect of the existing state of affairs is the frequency with which changes are made. A fact that school boards constantly

lose sight of is that the mere ability to pass a third or second-class examination does not constitute a young man or young woman a competent teacher. Good teachers are as rare as holders of teachers' certificates are abundant ; and the best results can only be attained by one who devotes his whole time and thought to his work, and who has had a number of years' experience. As a matter of fact, the average period of a teacher's professional career in Ontario is from 3 to 5 years, a period which, considering the extreme youth of a great majority of the teachers, is scarcely sufficient to enable them to understand what teaching means. Quite as important in its effect as his faculty for teaching is the influence of the personality of the teacher upon the young and unformed mind. This fact, while it should idealize the teaching profession, is almost entirely lost sight of in ordinary usage. People are satisfied to remove a thoroughly disciplined and competent teacher to make way for a boy or girl who does not intend to use the position save as a stepping-stone to something better. Until the public is prepared to read into the qualifications they require of teachers other than financial considerations, the profession will fail to attract, or at all events to hold, really competent instructors, and will offer but little encouragement to young men and women of ambition and ability.

At the annual convention of the Ontario Educational Association, held in Toronto last month, these matters were the subject of much comment, and were the main theme of the president's annual address, in which the wide difference between teaching as it is, and as it should be, was pointed out. Among the remedies proposed were the abolition of primary non-professional certificates as a means of obtaining entrance to County Model

Schools, and the raising of the age of entrance to the profession to 21 years. Of the 8,988 Public School teachers of the province in 1896 4,415 held third-class certificates, 3,309 second-class, 297 first-class, and 967 held other certificates, including those of county boards; of the total number, 3,418 had attended Normal Schools. From these figures it will be seen that about one-half of the Public School teachers of the province have only the third-class qualification; but, in view of the recent agitation and the growing feeling in favor of a change, it is probable that in the course of the next few years it will scarcely be possible for a teacher to secure even a fair position without having attained that standard. The fact that the School Boards in the cities have recently been aroused to the importance of retaining competent teachers at reasonable salaries introduces an element of hope, and a better state of affairs generally may be looked for.

The position of the High School and Collegiate Institute teacher is considerably better; but here a new set of conditions have to be kept in mind. Competition has led to a raise in the standard, until to day one must practically hold a university degree in arts in order to receive consideration, and even then it is becoming rare for a teacher to receive more than \$600 or \$700, unless he is a specialist in his department.

At the top of the profession stands the university professor, whose position, though it is only to be attained even by men of conspicuous ability after many years of hard study, possesses many attractions from the atmosphere of culture which surrounds it. The field is, however, very limited, and before a man or woman can hope for consideration he must have given evidence of unusual intellectual capacity.—*Mail-Empire*.

At last Sousa's appeal to "let loose the dogs of war" has been answered by a fiery and impetuous nation, and the war cloud, which has been hanging for so long over the Western continent, has burst. The match which fired the train was lighted by Congress when they passed their memorable resolution, but there is still a good deal of doubt as to the nature of the magazine which has now exploded with a good deal of fire and an immense amount of smoke. Is it that feelings of outraged humanity have at length awakened Americans to a sense of their duty, or that Uncle Sam is casting covetous eyes on the brightest jewel in the crown of Spain? As regards the theory that the end and aim of the United States is to make themselves independent of all other countries by gathering under her flag, countries producing all things which are necessary for the daily life of her people, Cuba could hardly be said to be necessary to the States, as although she is perhaps the richest garden of the world, yet the Southern States of the Union are also large producers of the articles by which Cuba herself has become famous. It has often been said that Cuba, when freed from the Spanish yoke, will have a dark future indeed, unless she is able to enter the Union, as it will be long before a firm government of any kind is established and the country recovers from the effects of the protracted and devastating war. Of the issue of the present conflict there can be no doubt. A nation, whose history can in all justice be said to be drawing to its close, fighting for the sake of the glory and chivalry of the old days, can have little hope of ultimate success against a nation of practically unlimited resources, directed by men of the most energetic type, and, as the civil war has shown, second to none in individual courage and daring. Both countries are woe-

fully unprepared, and it may be months before any decisive blow is struck. In the meantime war talk goes on merrily, the sale of daily papers increases to an enormous extent, and indeed it is safe to say that never was a war reported in such detail as this one; reports are received, confirmed, discredited, confirmed again and finally given to the public as gospel truth. The public is becoming a little skeptical, and now takes a great deal of war news *cum grano salis*. When the end comes, and the time arrives for straightening diplomatic relations, and adjusting international difficulties, some light may be thrown on the real cause of the war. The word "sugar trust" has been mentioned and seconded, but although there are unscrupulous men in every country who will stick at nothing to attain their own ends, it would be an act of the greatest injustice to the American people to believe them incapable of being actuated by a genuine desire to relieve the suffering of the wretched reconcentrados, and to drive the Spaniard from his helpless prey.—*Trinity University Review*, May, '98.

This question has been up so often and threshed out so frequently that it might seem gratuitous to raise it again. Politicians of all parties are especially anxious to avoid stirring it up, for it has ever proved a troublesome and thorny question to deal with. But nothing is ever settled until it is settled right, and as we do not believe that the position of matters in Ontario is one that the people ought to be satisfied with, we venture to broach it once more, not for the purpose of stirring up strife, but for the purpose of suggesting a very much better solution of it.

The present regulations, in addition to allowing the schools to be opened with prayer and the reading of the

Scriptures, permit the clergy of the different churches under certain reasonable limitations to give religious instruction at fixed hours to the children of their own denomination. So far so good. This has quieted the clamor; but it has not secured religious instruction, for the simple reason that save in a few sporadic cases, the clergy do not avail themselves of it. Nor do we believe they are ever likely to do so. The truth is, most of them have too many other pressing duties and fixed appointments to take on this additional burden unless under pressure of a different kind from that they now feel.

What we suggest is that the teacher should be authorized, or perhaps required, to go a step further than he now goes and give, not religious instruction, indeed, but instruction in Old and New Testament history. This makes an admirable discipline in itself, and it furnishes the best foundation for religious instruction elsewhere. It can be done without involving any denominational teaching whatever, or exciting denominational jealousy. In a discussion which took place in the Synod of Montreal and Ottawa last week, attention was called to the success of this experiment in the Protestant schools of Quebec. In an experience of twenty years and more, during which it has been tried, there has not been a single serious case of friction over the matter either from teachers, children, or parents. Of course there is a conscience clause exempting any who object, but this is rarely invoked, though there are both Roman Catholics and Jews in many of the schools. The system has given complete satisfaction and the children get an acquaintance with the facts of the Bible history such as no other is likely to give them. Why should it not work in Ontario as well?

We should be very unwilling to do

anything to disturb the harmony that now prevails, but we cannot consent to leave things as they are now without protest. In the long run, we believe that some such course will be

found necessary to prevent the demand for denominational schools from gaining a following such as might wreck the present system altogether. —*Presbyterian Review*, May.

SCHOOL WORK.

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES.

THE most important of recent additions to astronomical literature is the list of new double stars discovered at the Lowell Observatory by Dr. T. J. J. See. This accomplished astronomer, with two assistants, had examined over 100,000 stars from the first to the tenth magnitude, the area swept over being the zone between 20 degs. and 45 degs. south declination. The interest in double and multiple stars has in recent years been specially marked, while the study of those which are known to be physically connected has occasioned some very searching investigations into stellar evolution. It is a noteworthy fact that Dr. See is not only an observer of the keenest powers of vision and most correct judgment, but is an accomplished mathematician as well. At the present time he shares, with G. H. Darwin, the distinction of being foremost among those who have applied analysis to the history of nebulous masses. One result they reached is that a nebula will not necessarily assume the spheroidal form as supposed by La Place, and throw off rings when the force of gravity is overcome by the centrifugal force, but may take a pear-shaped form, finally separating into two masses, revolving about their common centre of gravity. This certainly has not been the history of our solar system, but there are many binary systems which offer evidence of the truth of the theory.

The observer will find Jupiter still a beautiful object, and though drawing nearer to the sun the phenomena of the satellite may be well observed for some time yet. The occultations by the planet of the 3rd satellite are particularly interesting. When occulted by Jupiter the moon disappears of course on the west limb; passing behind it reappears on the east limb, and remains visible for a short time before being immersed in the shadow cone cast by the planet. This phenomenon may be observed on the evening of June 28th. The satellite is eclipsed by the shadow at 8h. 40m., reappearing 2h. 20m. later.

Saturn, now past opposition, is visible at convenient hours. Towards the end of June he comes to the meridian at 10 o'clock. The retrograde motion is quite noticeable; he is about 7 degs. north of the well known red star Antares, in the Scorpion; during the month, until the 23rd, Saturn is east of the star, but, passing westward, is west of the star on the 24th. If the two objects are watched as they come to the meridian the retrograde motion of the planet will be most readily seen. Venus is a very beautiful object now. Perhaps the most interesting point about the planet is the increasing brightness. The brilliancy of the disc is tabulated in the Nautical Almanac in terms of a stated unit, thus: Suppose a disc of radius one second, at distance from the sun equal to earth's distance; it is illuminated as Venus is, and the light reflecting power is the same; that brilliancy

then is unity. Now Venus on June 30th is stated to give 68 units of light, increasing about 2 units each five days. The number of units depends of course upon the angular diameter of the planet and its distance. To the amateur it may be of interest to try to note the increase of brightness from day to day. Perhaps the simplest way is to view the planet through pieces of glass lightly colored or

smoked. Looking through so many plates of glass Venus is invisible; a few nights hence and it is possible to see her through the same number, and so on. Experimentation of this kind leads one to the methods of determining stellar magnitudes, a very important branch of sidereal astronomy, and without which there could be no advance in the study of variable stars.

THOS. LINDSAY, Toronto.

- DR. HARPER'S SUCCESSFUL BOOK -

THREE EDITIONS ALREADY ISSUED.

OUR JEAMES

In The CHRONICLES OF KARTDALE, edited by J. Murdoch Henderson; crown octavo, bound in cloth: price \$1.25. Popular Canadian Edition, 50cts.

This book, which has been so well received on both sides of the Atlantic, and recommended as a "FINE TRILOGY OF SCOTTISH STORY," is one of those collections which magnifying the little to the proportions of what is called the great, incline to make the whole world feel akin. Such books have always received a kindly reception from the reading public and, as it seems, no exception has been made in the case of "Our Jeames." The book has received very many encomiums such as the subjoined.

"With its telling passages, the tale should be interesting to many of our citizens."—*Glasgow Herald*.

"Our Jeames is a clever portrait of the type of church officer fast disappearing."—*Renfrewshire Gazette*.

"Our Jeames is a distinct contribution to the best literature of the day, and at once places the author in the front rank of modern writers. Those who take up the book will be loath to lay it down before they have finished the last page."—*Sherbrooke Gazette*.

"Like a breath of clover from a June meadow, amid all the new thought and non-religion that pervades so much of to-day's literature. The book is thoroughly wholesome."—*Montreal Herald*.

"We close this book feeling that a master hand has been touching the keyboard of the humanities. These sketches are all highly meritorious."—*Daily Standard*.

"I have read Our Jeames with the greatest of pleasure. The story is wholesome, original, a bit philosophical, and rich in a certain quiet humor peculiarly Scottish. I have enjoyed every page, and am glad to find that a book so good from cover to cover is appreciated and widely read."—*Dr. George Stewart*.

MORISON BROS., PUBLISHERS,
GLASGOW.

THE WILLIAM DRYSDALE Co.
MONTREAL.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Dear Mr. Editor,—The following I have taken from one of our school journals to send to you, as it may be of much interest to my fellow-teachers at this trying time of the year. I think if there were more exchanges of thought of this kind amongst us, communicated as they might be through

your valuable journal, which seems to be improving all the time, it would be all the better for us from a professional stand-point. Yours, etc.,

A WELL-WISHER.

PREPARING FOR EXAMINATION.

This is the last term of the year;

and to multitudes of teachers and pupils, the final examination and the preparation for it loom up portentously in the near future. It has been the custom with many teachers, and we suspect it is yet, to go over the daily lessons, without much of review, or correlation, till about the last three or four weeks of the term, and then to rush over the whole field again, to fix facts in the memory so that they may be recalled readily on the fateful day. That is the method and that is all. Now, to our mind, this involves two grave mistakes; one as to what examination should be, and the other as to the proper way of preparing for it. Examination, however conducted, should be something more than recalling, in an isolated and unrelated way, the facts that have been stored in memory during a term or a year. The facts should be seen in their relation to each other. As progress is made in a study from day to day, the mind of the pupil should be trained to see over a larger area, and to see how the different parts are related to each other, and how new acquisition illumines and reinforces what was before acquired. Furthermore, there should be developed a growing power both to acquire and to relate particulars, as well as to see more fully how the particular branch of study under consideration is related to, and throws light upon, all other branches of study.

Now, should preparation for all this be deferred till the last few hurried weeks of the term? Or should it form a part of the work of every day, from the first. To ask these questions is to answer them, as we view it. Both for a truly successful examination, and for a building of knowledge acquired into an organic whole, the common way is not a good way. The time to begin preparation for examination is the first day of the term; the time to continue it is every subsequent day; the method of doing

it will become apparent if we see clearly what the final examination should be and what it should show.

Dear Mr. Editor,—Mr. Calkins' book is out, and I cannot say that I am very much taken either with its looks or its style. Will it have to run the gauntlet that Mr. Clement's volume has run? It looks as if something would have to be done with Roberts' book after all to make it suitable for our schools. Is there any money in the treasury of Mr. Paterson's committee for such a work?
THE BEST IF ANY.

Dear Mr. Editor,—The Dominion Association of Teachers holds its convention in Halifax this year, I hear, but no information has yet reached us as to how we are to get to Halifax, or how much the trip will cost. Has a programme really been prepared, and where can one be had? E. M. B.

Dear Mr. Editor,—I don't know, sir, how injudicious you may think me to be when you receive another letter from me. But in case the month of July should find me no longer a Montreal teacher, I must have a farewell word with you as such, whatever the consequences may be.

The later events which have created quite a little stir amongst us include the slight put upon one of the masters of the High School, who, after kindly offering to give our local association an illustrated lecture, found that no preparation had been made for him, and that the lecture and lecturer had to take a back seat among the minor items of the programme. The proper official, whether he had fallen again a prey to the habit of neglecting to answer communications or not, had evidently become the victim of a fit of forgetfulness, and what will now be done with him I am sure I cannot very well say. We hope that nothing

very serious will be done to him, considering how full his cup of tribulation has been of late. What would you do with him, Mr. Editor? Does he really deserve any serious punishment? It looks very much to many of us that we are never to hear the end of that "slate" escapade, over which the head-masters of our city nearly lost their heads, and over which one of them may possibly yet lose his place. One gentleman, it is said, had to resign his seat at the Executive on account of having had something to do with the "slate," though I, for one, can hardly think he would do such a thing. And, Mr. Editor, I can hardly tell you all I hear about the matter, but it is further said that anything but a good thing is about to befall the man who let "the cat out the bag," and but for whom we teachers would again have been left in the dark. The head-masters are mad at the three originators of the scheme, and the three originators of the scheme—one of them particularly—are mad at the simplicity of the poor fellow who told his teachers all about it. I sometimes think, Mr. Editor, that the Board should also be told all about how the thing originated, and how it was planned and carried out as if under their own authority. There ought, at least, to be some way of saving my poor fellow teacher from the wrath of those who did an ignoble thing and are now only sorry that they have been found out. I told you once before that I was afraid of these men. They have not found out yet who I am but they have found another victim, and to save him is one of the reasons I have for writing to you again. In a little while I hope to be clear of their influence to do me a hurt, but that should not prevent me from asking you to help a brother in distress. Do you not think you can come to his rescue?

A MONTREAL TEACHER.

Dear Mr. Editor :

The teacher who knows his physics and his chemistry will perhaps wonder more at the following report of liquid air and its properties, than the ordinary instructor. Yet this is what our newspapers are saying about the matter; and I am anxious to know if it is all true. Yours etc.,

MARVELLOUS.

Charles E. Tripler, whose new method of manufacturing liquefied air at small cost has caused a stir in the scientific world, performed some remarkable experiments before the Society of Chemical Industry at Havemeyer Hall, Columbia College, Friday night. He demonstrated that the liquefaction of air has been brought down by his process to a commercial basis, and that it has an expansive force many times greater than steam. He predicted that in the future it would be employed to run steamships and locomotives.

"Here is your liquid air," he said. "All that is needed is a Watts to put it to practical use."

In a gallon of the liquid air, it was stated, were compressed 781 gallons of common air. It is expected that by the new process absolute zero—the lowest point of temperature existing or possible in the world—will ultimately be reached. Already 330 degrees below zero, Fahrenheit, has been attained. The zero absolute is believed to be about 461 degrees below.

The meeting was presided over by Prof. Charles F. Chandler, and many prominent scientists and students in chemistry were present.

WONDERFUL FREEZING POWER.

"I can freeze anything but hydrogen," said Mr. Tripler at the outset of his experiments, "and I expect some day to be able to freeze that also."

An ordinary tumbler was poured

half full of whiskey and into this was poured a quantity of the liquid air. Mr. Tripler stirred it for a few minutes and it became brittle ice. He turned it out on a plate and passed it around. Pure alcohol was treated in the same way with like results, as was sulphuric acid and several other acids. Finally mercury was frozen into solid sticks so that it could be whittled with a knife like ordinary lead.

Into either end of a stick of the frozen mercury about an inch in diameter and four inches long were screwed rings. The stick was then suspended from an upright and to the lower end was attached a twenty-pound weight. The mercury remained solid enough to sustain the weight for eighteen minutes. A hammer was made of frozen mercury with which Mr. Tripler drove several nails into a plank.

A beefsteak was suspended in the liquid air, and when it was withdrawn it was cracked up in the hands like so much dried bark. Eggs and fruit were frozen so hard that they crumbled into dust under the blows of a hammer. A big onion, when subjected to the liquid air, came apart in scales, under slight pressure, that looked like pieces of broken china. A piece of frozen tin was snapped in the hand like a pane of window glass, and tempered steel, dipped in the liquid, was afterward hammered up as if it had been papier mache.

An ice tumbler was moulded and into it was poured a quantity of liquid air. It was stirred up until it boiled furiously.

"That liquid air in the ice tumbler," said Mr. Tripler, "is boiling harder than water ever boiled in any metal vessel."

EFFECT ON EXPLOSIVES.

The effect of the liquid air on explosives was shown in two sections of

shattered pipe, one of iron and one of brass, which Mr. Tripler said had been rent asunder by the liquid in conjunction with a bit of cotton waste.

Its effect on non-combustibles was illustrated by taking felt and carbon, showing the little effect which a match had on them, and then touching them off in a blaze after applying the liquid air.

Its expansive property was shown by exploding it in a tank and shooting a wad of paper with great force up to the high ceiling.

The most interesting of the experiments resulted from pouring a quantity of the liquid air into a glass jar partially filled with water. It set the water boiling furiously. An ordinary teakettle of water was set boiling over a gas flame until the steam poured merrily forth from the spout. The kettle was removed, and into it was placed a ladle of liquid air. The steam became violent in a moment and nearly blew off the lid.

"It does not take me long to get up steam my way," continued Mr. Tripler.

HEAT MEASUREMENT.

Aside from the prospective commercial value of liquid air, it would, if an absolute zero could be reached, form the basis for a new thermometer which would be a great advantage in the natural sciences. All present measurements of heat are relative, and the Fahrenheit thermometer merely marks the height attained in a tube by a column of mercury at the temperature of melting ice and at the temperature of boiling water. The tube has been arbitrarily divided between these points in the tube into 180 points called degrees. Below the freezing point thirty-two degrees more are marked off, creating an arbitrary zero.

This leaves the measure of heat in all the laboratories arbitrary. It is

merely a convenient way of comparing the heat of any object or place with the effect of heat upon water. To discover an absolute zero would set the science of heat upon an exact basis. This mysterious zero point

has long been sought after and volumes have been written upon it. Mr. Tripler has made a long stride toward this objective point, and his friends have confidence that he will yet reach the goal.

CONTEMPORARY LITERATURE.

As "Red Rock" proceeds it becomes more evident that Mr. Page is to be congratulated on his work. There is in the story a genuine humor and historical interest. One is not first caught and then wearied by a certain blaring audacity of style which belongs to the moment and has no permanent value in itself. The editors of *Scribner's Magazine* may have been sorry that their June number was not beforehand bristling with war intelligence and pictures, but some people, at least, are thankful for the quiet literary excellence of its preparation. If one is to be compelled to read nothing but ships, Cuba, soldiers and sailors, so far as magazines go, the ordinary neutral intelligence will not prove equal to the strain. In "The Workers," Mr. Wychoff is not quite so heart-rending as in the issue which gave us Chicago from the point of view of the unemployed.

When will publishers decide that stories cannot be properly illustrated by photographs of real people and actual scenery? No writer of fiction, nor anyone else can actually reproduce the mysterious essence of a personality. Yet one finds in the June *Bookman*, a reproduction of the photograph of Captain T. A. Scott, said to be "Captain Joe" of "Caleb West." It must seem to some people that nothing could repair such an injury. Captain Scott, if Captain Scott be Captain Joe, certainly was not put in the world to make Mr. Hopkinson Smith's fortune. Prof. Peck writes about the war in his own striking way. F. F. Sherman, a

Canadian, contributes a short piece of verse: "To a Friend, For a Copy of Keats' Poems."

Major J. B. Pond contributes to the June *St. Nicholas* an amusing account of how he procured his first gun. It is an unaffected piece of writing, which boys will make welcome. The most important contribution in the number is Frank R. Stockton's "The Buccaneers and Pirates of our Coast." Perhaps one is losing a proper feeling of what children want, and what they ought to have, but just because the *St. Nicholas* is a beloved magazine one feels that they can do better than this. Is there no writer left anywhere now who has the sincerity, the healthy joy, the strenuous endeavor, the reality of Miss Alcott? It is all ice-cream and taffy, it is all thoughtless brainlessness, and giddy rhymes with a joke in them—all very good once in a way—but for a constant dish! Is there nothing more nourishing anywhere in Robin Hood's barn?

The June *Cosmopolitan* is a war number. Otherwise, there is an account of Liquid Air, the newest wonder of science, by Charles E. Tripler, and a portion of a manuscript which has been discovered by the editor of the *Cosmopolitan* in an inland town of the United States, and which, he thinks, may be part of an autobiography of Napoleon Bonaparte. Harold Frederic's story, "Gloria Mundi," is continued; there are also a number of short stories, amongst them "The Gray Mills of Farley," by Sara Orne Jewett.

• THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

AUGUST-SEPTEMBER, 1898.

THE EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION AT HALIFAX.

THE convention of the Educational Association of Canada was held this year in the capital of Nova Scotia during the first week of August under the presidency of Dr. A. H. Mackay, the Superintendent of Education of that Province. The programme was a full one involving the discussions of educational reforms of the most important kind, these discussions being guided by those of our educationists who are well known to be able to view the educational necessities of our common country from a practical standpoint. It is impossible for us to find space for all the papers and addresses given at the sessions from day to day, but as these will be published in the transactions of the society, the necessity for such a full report in THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY is not so pressing as it might otherwise have been. The practical results of the discussions are to be seen in the resolutions that were passed at the final business meetings of the Association, and the regret was very generally expressed that more time could not be given for these business meetings.

The character of the work done by the convention may be seen from the report of the resolutions and the causes which led to their being passed. Before the convention was opened it was found necessary to consider the Constitution of the Association, and a

Committee was appointed, with Dr. Harper as convenor, to revise some of the items that had been found to be impossible to carry out. The amendments proposed were unanimously agreed to later by the Association and they will appear in the copy of the transactions that will be sent to the members. The convenor gave notice of motion that, the Association being a representative one, there should be a clause in the Constitution making this a more important feature in the future, the motion proposed being to the effect :

That, inasmuch as the Educational Association of Canada is a representative institution, the Executive may be enlarged by representatives selected by the teachers' associations of the various provinces or by the Boards or Councils of Education of the provinces or territories where such associations have not yet been organized ; and that the local associations or teachers' institutes be also encouraged to elect representatives who shall be present at the deliberations of the Board of Directors that are held during the convention.

The necessity for such representation has been apparent for some time, in order that all the elements of our educational systems may have an interest in the welfare of the Association, through having a direct influence on its deliberations. Even at the meet-

ing in Halifax it was felt that more should be done to keep clear of the impression that has given rise to so much unrest in many of our provincial associations over the *personnel* of the Executive — a very secondary thing in itself as long as the affairs of the Association are carefully attended to. As President Mackay said, in reply to Mr. McLean, of St. John, and Mr. Robertson, of St. Catharines, the Executive and its constitution is but the least of the matters with which the Association has to do, and yet, since many make so much of the election of the members of the Executive, and seem to pass their whole time during the convention in formulating their pre-arrangements, it can do no harm to place the function of management in the hands of the Association as far as this can be done without serious loss of time during the convention. With the widest representation possible, and a freedom of action in the management of the affairs of the Association by the teachers themselves, it will, it is thought, add to its prestige, and give its deliberations all the emphasis necessary.

Another of the resolutions passed may be looked upon as an expression of the loyalty and patriotism of those present. The initiative of having an "Empire Day" as a school holiday was taken by the Hon. Dr. Ross, of Ontario, in a paper which was read in his absence. That paper included suggestions for a day to be observed all over Canada for the purpose of developing a higher manhood and a broader citizenship, patriotism and loyalty. In detail he said:

I desire to indicate my strong preference for "Empire Day" as the title by which a patriotic day for the schools of Canada should be known.

(1) "Empire Day" suggests that larger British sentiment which I think now prevails throughout the empire, and to which Canada has for many

years contributed not a little. The proudest sentiment which the old Roman could express was *Civis Romanus sum*. The greatest sentiment as well as the most stirring which we could put into the minds and hearts of our children, in my opinion, is *Civis Britannicus sum*, and, to give that sentiment its fullest force, we should broaden it so as to include the whole British Empire.

(2) Whatever may be the destiny of Canada, and that is for posterity to say, rather than for us just now, I am convinced that, viewing the situation in the light of to-day, Canada's prosperity can with greater certainty be assured as a part of the British Empire than in any other way. If circumstances require this opinion to be reversed as generations come and go (and no one can tell what the future has in store for any nation), then let our successors govern themselves accordingly. Let us be governed by the conditions with which we are confronted.

As to the time most convenient for the celebration of such a day, from suggestions received and from a careful consideration of the whole question, I would respectfully advise that the school day immediately preceding the 24th of May be the day selected. This form of designating the day would overcome any difficulty that might arise when the 24th of May fell on Sunday or Monday. The 24th of May is a statutory holiday and the schools are consequently closed. It is a day which all British subjects celebrate in a spirit of the deepest respect for Her Gracious Majesty for her pre-eminence as "wife, mother and Queen," and of profoundest loyalty to their country because of the privileges which as citizens they enjoy. If the school day immediately preceding the 24th of May is set apart as "Empire Day" the exercises which may be designed for the afternoon of that day will have

(at least during Her Majesty's reign) a depth of feeling which perhaps they might not have at any other season of the year, and even should the day be continued (and I think it properly might be) after Her Majesty's demise, for this and the next generation or two, the recollection of her illustrious reign will by reflection still quicken the pulse of the many hundreds of thousands of school children as they remember the greatness of the empire over which she reigned so long.

I need not urge upon the Dominion Teachers' Association the desirability of taking action in this matter. The Association speaks for the whole Dominion. I think the voice of the people is in favor of a higher, a purer and a less selfish patriotism than perhaps we possess now, and nowhere can better motives be planted for an ideal national life than in the schoolroom. There can be no future for Canada worthy of the traditions of the lands from which she has been stocked, or worthy of the opportunities for nationhood which now seem to be thrust upon her, unless we gird up our loins and with a resolute and studied purpose endeavor to develop a national spirit. We are a young community, our educational advantages should make our patriotism broad and sympathetic. It is, therefore, in no narrow spirit, nor with a desire to exalt ourselves above our neighbors, nor to intrude upon the public, in a blustering, arrogant manner, our love of country, that we should approach this subject or celebrate such a day, should that be agreed upon. Canadian patriotism should be comprehensive, respectful, intelligent, and at the same time intense. Our history, our institutions and our future possibilities warrant us in taking this ground, and the teachers of Canada have the culture and the mental and moral qualifications by which the brightest type of the purest and most unselfish patriot-

ism can be cultivated, and now is a good time to enter upon such a noble work.

In the same connection a letter was read from George Johnston, Esq., the well-known statistician of the Dominion, and the Committee on Resolutions brought in the following which was carried unanimously: "Resolved, that this Association recommends that the school day immediately preceding May 24 be set apart as Empire Day, and that the Departments of Education in the provinces and territories be respectfully requested to arrange for such exercises in their respective schools as will tend to the increase of a sound patriotic feeling."

Another of the practical questions brought up for discussion, and one on which the educational destiny of Canada as a whole may to some extent depend, was the organization of a Central Bureau of Education for the Dominion. The subject was introduced by Dr. J. M. Harper, of Quebec, in an address given at one of the public gatherings in the Academy of Music. That gentleman has already, as our readers are aware, taken an active part in bringing the matter before the public in his writings and addresses, and, at the last convention of Quebec teachers held in Montreal, strongly advocated in his presidential address the introduction of some co-ordinating educational force such as this that would help, through the common school, toward a closer consolidation of the various provinces as one people. His address at the Halifax meeting can hardly be given here in full. We will, however, give it with other papers read at the convention in subsequent issues. Suffice it here to say that his suggestion aims at no resolution. The basis of the sub-department he would like to see organized in Ottawa is to be found in the Bureau of Education at Washington—endowed with a unifying function,

so that it might become a social force in our midst, which, while neither under nor over any provincial authority, perhaps not even distinctively advisory in an official sense, would bring about by judicial and justifiable means an assimilation of provincial necessities and pedagogic affinities that would eventually lead the teachers of Canada and through them the rising generation to help in the movement that has for its object a shading away of the provincial into the federal, into the national. Dr. Harper's suggestion, it is hardly necessary to say, was received with great acceptance, and before the convention came to an end a resolution was passed appointing a Committee to take charge of the matter and help to mature it as a practical project worthy the attention of the federal authorities.

Another very important suggestion was made by Dr. J. A. MacCabe, of the Ottawa Normal School, who has been chosen president of the Association. The suggestion was given in a paper read at one of the public gatherings in Orphan's Hall, and was well received by the crowded audience present. A uniform standard of teachers' licenses for the Dominion has been under discussion among our teachers for many years, and Dr. MacCabe now suggests that something practical should be done to bring about the assimilation. We intend to publish his interesting address in a subsequent issue. The information he laid before the teachers could not but convince them that such assimilation for the Dominion is feasible; and action will, no doubt, be taken in the direction of making all teachers' licenses valid in the provinces of the Dominion, subject, of course, to certain minor conditions. Dr. MacCabe's final word to the teachers afraid of competition is worth immediate attention. "The uniformity of license or teachers' diploma," he said, "and the reciprocity of employment does not oblige any teacher to go outside

his own province for employment. If the holder of a position is as good a man as can be obtained for that position he would have nothing to fear; if he is not, then he should not expect to retain his position if a better man can be obtained. No province will long rest content if its standard of proficiency is below that of the other provinces. There will exist a wholesome fear lest their schools may not be up to the standard which prevails elsewhere, and they will strive for a place among the schools of the Dominion to which, under the present condition of affairs, there is no incentive."

One of the most interesting features of the convention was Hon. Dr. Longley's brilliant address in favor of "The Spiritual Element in Education." In introducing his subject Dr. Longley offered two criticisms of our educational system: First, it is not sufficiently practical; secondly, it is too essentially practical and worldly. In elaborating this somewhat paradoxical statement, he said that in time technical education and manual training might be expected to rectify whatever may be lacking in the practical side of our educational system; the defect on the other side, however, is more radical in its character, is less fully recognized and has fewer persons to plead in its interests and to struggle for its reform. From the beginning to the end the supreme object of most teachers under our system is to get pupils who can pass successful, and, if need be, splendid examinations upon the various subjects which constitute the curriculum of the common school course, to send forth into the world pupils who have done well in their studies, or to send into the academies and universities men who are prepared to shine in the higher institutions and to graduate therefrom with the highest honors. May I venture to submit, with deference, that this is not educa-

tion in its full sense and scope? High character and spiritual life are absolute and primal necessities for the development of national character, national greatness, national stability. If, as we profess to believe, man is an immortal being, then that which pertains to his soul is of a thousand times more consequence than everything which pertains to his body, his worldly fortunes, or his mortal career, and the system of education which develops his physical powers and capacities, which trains his mental endowments to the highest pitch of perfection, and which leaves his vast spiritual possibilities undeveloped and unregarded, is a system unworthy of a Christian country and unworthy of the boasted enlightenment which pertains to our age and country.

Mr. Longley then pointed out that the question of teaching religion in the schools has unfortunately always been associated with dogmas, creeds, and denominationalism, raising difficult problems, the practical solution of which has been regarded as so serious that refuge has been taken in the alternative of not teaching religion in the schools at all. The Roman Catholic is not willing that his children should be taught the Westminster confession, neither is the Presbyterian or Methodist willing that the doctrine of the immaculate conception be instilled into his children; the Baptist will protest against infant baptism, and the Episcopalian will object to church democracy. In Nova Scotia we have settled the problem by making our schools non-sectarian, secular, godless. In other provinces of the Dominion the problem has been settled by permitting one body of Christians to have their children set off by themselves and taught according to the beliefs of that religious body and the rest of the children taught a composite form of religion, which will, as far as possible, eliminate everything offensive to any one of co-ordinate religious bodies.

It has always seemed to me, vast and overpowering as the difficulties are, that, with a properly developed teaching body, religion in its full, broad, and beautiful sense could be taught in all schools and under conditions that would be, not only not offensive to any, but eminently satisfactory and uplifting to all.

The teacher who would fulfil the ideal of his profession will not be content to send forth from his institution, whatever it may be, a body of pupils who in test examinations in purely mental subjects can secure the highest marks or the highest proficiency, but he will regard it as the greatest function of his work to lead, hour by hour, day by day, and year by year, the young beings entrusted to his care into the higher regions of spiritual life. That is education that will produce the highest form of citizenship, that will secure a nation of men animated by higher aims and motives than sordid and selfish grasping after worldly rewards. It will produce a nation of heroes, of lovers of poets, of fully developed men.

After elaborating this view at some length Mr. Longley referred to the intense materialism of the present age. It is, he said, an age in which men are seeking for riches, for the conquest of the earth; when nations are striving for more territory and more power; when the things which pertain solely and entirely to this mortal life are the things which are absorbing the attention of an overwhelming preponderance of the population.

"This cannot last. Spiritual things are more important, vastly more important, to mankind than temporal things. Poetry, sentiment, religion are essential to the development of the highest character. A nation which ignores either sentiment, poetry, or religion is a nation that, sooner or later, must fall by the corroding influence of its own sordid aims. This revival of

religion in the State will be brought about, not by the beating of drums, the rending of garments or the putting on of sackcloth, not by noisy declamations from pulpit or platform ; this revival of religion will be brought about soonest and most surely by the agency of a body of devoted teachers, who, when they enter the schoolroom, enter not to teach reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar, but enter that schoolroom to develop with patient devotion the great immortal qualities of those beings which are entrusted to their care.

"A great Englishman was recently laid in Westminster Abbey, who for nearly his entire life-time was reviled and abused because he placed the interests of humanity above the interests of the British Empire. But now that men have come to consider the character of the man they place him higher than all others, because he made his conception of human duty as broad as humanity itself.

"Our first duty and our first regard is to make this young nation of ours worthy and great in the moral tone and fibre of its people. We also glory in the empire to which we belong, with whose fortunes we are inextricably linked ; yet we must ever keep in mind that no power is destined to last except the power which rests upon the immutable basis of moral worth."

In illustration of this truth, and as a fitting conclusion to his excellent paper, Mr. Longley read Rudyard Kipling's Diamond Jubilee poem, the "Recessional."

Though the question of language or alphabetic reform was given no very large space for discussion during the convention, Inspector Brown, of Peterborough, gave notice of motion that some change in the pronunciation of certain consonants was advisable, and a Committee was appointed to con-

sider and report on (1) the universal use of decimal weights and measures, (2) the simplification of English orthography, and (3) the general introduction of a distinctly legible phonetic short-hand—three reforms which Dr. Mackay had discussed fully in a paper read before the Toronto Convention three years ago.

Another resolution seems to have had for its object the sustaining of the dignity of the profession at times when appointments are being made by commissioners and trustees. The discussion, which led up to the resolution, referred pointedly to the practice of affixing the salary, not to the position vacant, but to the possibilities of the teacher appointed, in which too often the question of salary leads the trustee to overlook the ability or disability of the nominee. The resolution, after being carefully edited by Superintendent Goggin and Mr. Parmelee, assumed the following somewhat classical form : Resolved, that this Association recommends that, in the engagement of teachers, good character, graceful manners, broad and accurate scholarship and professional skill determine the selection rather than considerations of low salary.

As has already been said, the routine of the departments and the papers read we will refer to in subsequent issues. The incidents of the convention, with its receptions, steamboat excursions, and other pleasurable associations, were, as usual, full of interest to all the members. Halifax is a hospitable city, and may always be depended upon for the interest her citizens take in every movement that has for its object the moral and intellectual advancement of the Dominion. The next convention will meet after a lapse of two years in the city of Ottawa in 1900.

A SCOTTISH TEACHER IN NEW YORK.

WHEN I landed in New York about three years ago I had no extravagant expectations of getting immediate and lucrative employment ; and yet I was not prepared to find it so difficult to get placed. The objection to employing me—one which I met at every turn of the way in the first few months of my quest for work—might be formulated as follows : “ You appear to have the qualifications necessary for the position, and personally you would be acceptable to me ; the only fear I have arises from the well-known fact that American boys are so unlike English boys, and require different methods of discipline.”

I first tried a well-known school agency in New York, which sent me several notices of vacancies in out-of-the-way places. For the nearest of these I applied by letter—it was in a ladies’ college in Virginia ; but, convinced by the lady principal’s answer that what she really wanted was a sort of spiritual overseer and factotum, rather than a plain teacher of the humanities like myself, I dropped the negotiation and paid no further attention to agency vacancies.

At last, through persistent watching of the advertising columns of the leading newspapers, I did succeed in getting a position in New York as teacher of classics and mathematics in a school of about fifty boys. It was a preparatory or secondary school, and as it was not a boarding-school I congratulated myself on being well rid of the galling burden of playground and domestic supervision under which I had so long chafed in England. I may here mention that, after graduating in Arts at the University of Edinburgh, I had taught in a Scotch school for one year ; and then, after some months of private tuition, accepted a situation in an English

boarding-school, where the salary, exclusive of board and lodging, amounted to sixty pounds a year. My salary now was to be seven hundred dollars about (£140), a figure which many American teachers would have turned away from, but which my circumstances did not permit me to decline.

As I have said, I had been repeatedly warned of the difference between American boys and British boys ; and certainly, if their conduct in the home, and especially in the street, was to be taken as the criterion, the difference is patent to any observer who keeps his eyes open. But when I came to meet them in a well-ordered school—such as this one undoubtedly was—I found no such radical differences as had been predicted. Americans are too ready to assume that English boys are tyrannized over at school, and that no such pleasant relations as often obtain in their country between teacher and scholar can exist in a Scotch or English school. It is as difficult to convince them of the contrary fact as it is sometimes to make them believe that members of Parliament receive no pay for their services. At any rate, I found it no such hard matter to manage a class of sixteen well-grown American boys ; indeed, they proved, as a rule, to be not only apt and intelligent at their work, but remarkably attentive and respectful in their deportment as well. There was not really a troublesome boy in the whole lot, the only source of embarrassment being a chubby-faced youth of German stock, who had a turn for practical joking, though he weighed about 250 pounds.

About half of my class had passed through the regular course of the school from the primary department up to the graduating class. These were pretty well grounded ; but the

class as a whole would not have attained to a satisfactory standard if tried by a British test. One thing I considered largely to blame for the shambling, unsolid character of these boys' performances was the absurd system of marking up for lessons in vogue in the school. An average of 90 per cent. was what everybody looked for, while 60 per cent. was downright failure; and when a boy got a succession of low weekly averages he was very apt to take the huff, and by-and-by he might be heard of as attending some other school.

My boys were handicapped in still another way. Some time before Christmas they were set to "memorizing" orations, dialogues, and passages of Latin and Greek for recitation at the annual entertainment to be given by the school before closing for the holidays. Of course, it resulted in their proper work being performed very perfunctorily, when it was not neglected altogether. When the great day, or rather evening, arrived, and the first part of the programme had been successfully rendered, the principal ascended the platform, and, making his bow to the packed audience, read off from a report-book a few details regarding those precious averages, which seemed to be assumed by everybody to be exactly commensurate with the proficiency of the pupils.

Still another and most serious thing interfered with the efficiency of the class. There was no rigid and impartial examination awaiting it at the end of the session to put the boys on their mettle, as is the effect on an English school by the approach of the *examinations* of the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board; or as used to be the case in Scotland, in my earlier days, when the event of the year was the examination of the whole school by a deputation of the ministers of the presbytery, whose faces loomed fatefully on that morning be-

hind a pile of glittering prize-books on the master's desk. Here the examination of my classes was to be conducted by myself, under the general supervision of the principal, at the end of the school year in June, or the end of May. In the Public Schools, of course, a much more rigid and effective system prevails, the examinations in them being periodically conducted by the Superintendent of Public Instruction and his staff of assistants.

Long, however, before our "commencement" day arrived—that is, the day for the final exercises of the school, when the public were again admitted—a whispered rumor had been going the rounds of the older teachers, which, when it reached my ears, sent a cold thrill down my spine. It was to the effect that, owing to causes which had been at work for some time back, the school was not paying, and that some of us would have to go without our last two months' salary. To pass over this miserable experience, I must do the principal the justice to say that he showed a creditable feeling for me in my hard position, without money or friends in a strange land, by recommending me for some other work, which, though not of a very congenial nature, stood me in good stead during the long and trying summer months—that sweltering, dusty, noisy season in American cities, when to the forlorn Britisher, unable to leave the scorching city, life seems not worth living.

I declined to re-engage with this principal for the following year, even with the bait offered of an increase of salary (that might never be forthcoming), preferring to try for what I could get in the way of private teaching. After many failures in this direction I at last struck out a form of advertisement which soon brought me plenty of pupils—of a kind. It might, be amusing, but not profitable, to expose the pecuniary value of a tutor's services,

as estimated by many worthy people. In America the teacher in a good school gets much more than he does in the average school in Britain; but when it comes to private tuition conditions seem to be reversed, and the reason, or at least the chief reason, is not far to seek. The Public School in America takes a good deal of the ground from under the feet of the private teacher, because it not only imparts an elementary training to the children of all classes who choose to avail themselves of it, but it also largely serves the same purpose as the middle-class secondary school of Great Britain. In America one has to go up a step or two in the social scale to reach people with the means for employing private tutors. The possession of such means implies also a certain degree of culture; and consequently a private tutor is better off in America than could be expected in a country where the influence of a Public School system extends to almost every rank of the community. As it is, large numbers of people, intelligent but not particularly cultivated, have means enough to hire private teachers for special purposes, at rates more directly dependent on the general trend of business than is the case in England and Scotland. And there is no such demand for the services of the private teacher in the United States as there is in Britain in connection with the competitive examinations for the various branches of the Civil Service, as well as for the preliminary examinations of certain professional bodies. Civil Service reform is still in its first stages in America, and it is questionable, under the present system of government, if its principles can ever be very generally put in practice.

It was among this large and thriving class of citizens that my work now lay for some time, and my most pleasant memories date from this intercourse, for several of my patrons were not only satisfactory pupils (adults) in a

two fold sense, but also extremely sympathetic and companionable as fellow-sojourners in this vale of the teachers and the taught. I had pupils of every age above childhood, of both sexes, and of almost every European nationality and condition of life. I prepared young men for college entrance examinations, and brushed up squads of young clerks in their grammar and arithmetic, but could never get them (or my young lady pupils either, fluent and stimulating as they might be in their talk) to write down their thoughts in simple idiomatic English. I read Latin with patient and reasonable lawyers—who almost invariably make satisfactory students—and German with testy and unreasonable physicians, who, in their burning impatience to be put in the way of reading the German medical periodicals, required of their teachers an exercise of power which they would have called miraculous if demanded of themselves by their patients. I taught heads of families their (English) letters, and gray-beards the extraction of the cube root and the solution of triangles. And almost in every case I found the foreign-born pupil, or the pupil born of foreign parents, whether German, or Swede, or Irish, or Cuban, or South American (I had none British), to be both brighter and more persevering than the descendants of long-established American ancestry—a fact to be accounted for by the anthropologist and not by the teacher, who must take men as he finds them in that seething caldron of the nations henceforward to be known as Greater New York. The chief faults of those of American descent, especially of young men in business, who came to me to be intellectually groomed were engrossment in social dissipation and “raw haste, half-sister to delay.” They were amiable and even-tempered to a degree, but fickle and easily discouraged; even those of them with more back-

bone than the average were at the bid of every call of pleasure, or too impatient of results from their work. The heritage of even a go-ahead temperament is not without its disadvantages, as enlightened Americans will readily admit.

As I had many excellent pupils whom I shall always hold in pleasant remembrance, so, as might be expected, an indiscriminate fisher such as I was must sometimes have netted strange fish. On the principle of *ex pede Herculem* I shall give an instance of two of these.

A young man wanted very badly to enter Harvard University in the following fall term—it was March when he came to me. Accordingly we set to work, reading "Cæsar" first; but when he had glibly rattled off the first few well-thumbed pages of his book and emerged into pastures new his eagerness oozed out and he collapsed. On my reporting this discreditable breakdown to his father, who was a commercial man, I learned that the boy's sole ambition in wishing to go to college was to shine as a member of one of the athletic societies, of which, it appeared, his elder and more gifted brother was already a distinguished ornament. A tip-top university stamp for his muscle was all the young jack-anapes was after; but, unfortunately for his aim, his pluck was not equal to his ambition, and he returned to his desk in his father's office, to the no small satisfaction of the latter, who doubtless felt he had done his part in surrendering one son to the Moloch of college athleticism.

One day a tall, stylishly-dressed young person came to me on somebody's recommendation, and was not long in letting me into the secret that she had leanings towards a career on the stage. She wished, before entering a school of acting, to read portions of the English drama under my guidance, with the view both of making

some acquaintance with the literature of the stage and of improving her pronunciation. She spoke with a strong German accent, appeared to be very illiterate, but also very positive and self-sufficient. I took down the comedy of "She Stoops to Conquer" to test her reading and expression, and when she had floundered through a scene or two in an execrable manner she suddenly asked me to explain the meaning of the title. But my explanation fell flat; the two notions of "stooping" and "conquering" were so incongruous to her mind that she could not bring them together in consciousness. Such dense, "yellow-primrose" literalness of intellect I never met with in any human being before or since.

Another time I was visited by a robust-looking man in the prime of life, who stated that he was a master plumber, and that, being deficient in his arithmetic, he was finding it difficult to keep track of his bookkeeper's accounts now that his business was increasing. A little fencing, however, elicited the pitiable admission that he was totally unable to read! He could read figures, add a little, and just write his own name—all he had ever learned in his native country—the Green Isle; but though he had hitherto been successful in concealing his limitations from the people about him, certain circumstances had recently given him the alarm, and he had made up his mind to try and mend matters. And what a struggle was his! What pathos in his groping efforts to spell out his way through the primer which his own little son had thrown aside two years before! But night after night, summer and winter, he kept it up, until at last he had his reward, and he could look his little boy boldly in the face, and had no more fears of his book-keeper.

At one time I had a class of young French Swiss watchmakers in Brooklyn,

who deluded themselves into thinking that they would learn English from a teacher while living clannishly by themselves in a boarding-house where not a word of English was spoken. They were very good, jovial fellows, and sometimes great fun as well ; but they took up their daily lesson as if to speak any language but their own was a humiliation to them.

Perhaps the oldest pupil of all was an old man over seventy, a native of Alsace, who wanted to learn geometry, because, after vainly trying to satisfy his craving for knowledge by dabbling in history and philosophy, and even modern science, he had come to the conclusion that the only truths which could satisfy a rational mind were the truths of mathematics ! Yet, paradoxical as it may seem, but is not, this arid-minded old fellow, who found even the bald statements of modern science too flowery for his taste, was a religious man, and a churchwarden to boot. Alas, he turned out to be not so single-minded as he appeared. He had his adamant crotchets, which I, backed by Euclid with chapter and verse, was powerless to remove. He

ended his lessons, which had gradually degenerated into ill-tempered altercations with his teacher, by one day breaking out into a savage tirade, not against the equator, but against the Proposition of the Three Squares (Euclid I. 47), and I saw him no more. It was his Waterloo.

But, though sometimes I had a good run of pupils, the work was poorly paid, when the cost of living was taken into account. A single man "who sets up for a gentleman" cannot live decently in New York under two pounds a week ; and when it is stated that the average compensation for private teaching is no more than half-a-dollar (two shillings) a lesson—only the fortunate few getting from three to four shillings—it is easy to see that a tutor must be kept very busy indeed to leave any margin beyond a mere livelihood. And there are those three dreadful months from the middle of June to the middle of September to be considered and provided for, when New York is a Sahara to the unfriended foreign teacher.—*Chambers' Journal.*

OVER-STUDY.

BY HON. G. W. ROSS, LL.D.,

Minister of Education, Ontario.

AT the closing exercises of the first session of 1898 at the Normal School on Friday, June 17th, the students were addressed by Hon. Geo. W. Ross, Minister of Education, upon the questions of home study and school examinations. The following is an extended report of the Minister's address given at that time :

Hon. Mr. Ross said : "There appears to be some misunderstanding in the public mind with regard to the responsibility of the Education De-

partment for the alleged pressure in the Public and High Schools of the Province. While I would not for a moment endeavor to evade any responsibility that belongs to me as Minister of Education, I think it is but fair to myself and to the department that you should clearly understand the legal incidence of that responsibility.

"Although the department prescribes a course of study for Public and High Schools, it does not fix the

time within which the course shall be completed. The presumption of the law is, however, that the Public School course can be completed before the pupil reaches the limit of the school age, viz., sixteen years. This allows an average of over two years to each form. The experience of many years warrants me in saying that in the vast majority of cases the Public School course can be completed with ease even before the pupil reaches fifteen years of age. If the parent, however, urges the early promotion of his child to the High School, or if the teacher forces the pace to make a reputation for himself regardless of consequences, surely the Department should not be held responsible for the over-pressure.

"Cases will arise where from the temperament of the child it is evident that some caution should be exercised with respect to the amount of work assigned from day to day. For such cases the law can make no provision, and I mention them now in order that you may be impressed with the importance of observing the physical condition of your pupils, lest from professional zeal you overtax their energies. You may have pupils who can study but who will not. These require some stimulus. What that stimulus should be most of you know from experience. There are other pupils who will study beyond their strength; these want to be restrained. How to exercise that restraint is purely a matter of judgment, for which no regulation can be prescribed. It sometimes happens that even a bright pupil is in ill health, and the tasks of the school-room in such cases are irksome. The prudent teacher will deal gently with all such cases. Every pupil is a subject of study, both as to his physical and his mental organization, and the skill of the successful teacher is nowhere better shown than in the adaptation of lessons and tasks to the physical and mental strength of his pupils.

"You will observe that I have asked a committee of the Medical Association to advise with me in regard to this matter, and therefore I propose suspending judgment until evidence is taken. I may, say, however, that the holidays have been increased within the last fifteen years, and that unless there is some gross mistake in the organization of our schools there should not be much physical injury to the pupils by attendance at school from five to six hours per day for a maximum of 200 days in the year. Moreover, it is to be remembered that the average attendance of each pupil in the Public Schools is only 112 out of the 365 days in the year, and in the High Schools 122 days in the year. Even in the case of the maximum of 200 days' attendance there should be very little danger to the average child. Courses of study are never prescribed for the weakest in point of physical and nervous strength, but for the average, and, as already said, the teacher is supposed to see that in the case of the weakest such modifications are made as will prevent any harm.

"Complaint is sometimes made, although not to me officially, that the home lessons prescribed by the teachers are so very heavy as to be a serious restraint upon the time which children should have for physical exercise. As a matter of fact, our school curriculum is prescribed purely with reference to the minimum time of five hours per day, during which the schools, by law, are required to be kept open, and, if pupils and teachers do their work faithfully during the time so prescribed, the course can be completed within the age limit fixed by the regulations, that is, before the pupil reaches sixteen years.

"And here another misapprehension prevails, viz., that home lessons are an obligation imposed upon pupils by the department. As a matter of fact, home lessons are a device of the

zealous teacher for the purpose sometime of obtaining a higher rate of progress on the part of his school, or at other times for compelling greater application on the part of dilatory pupils. As a matter of law the right to prescribe home lessons at all is prescriptive, and I shall not say, therefore, that a teacher has no authority to assign home lessons. Where, however, the parent sends a written notice to the teacher asking his child to be excused from home work, or where it is evident to the teacher that the work of the schoolroom is a sufficient strain upon the mental energies of the pupil, no home lessons can be prescribed or should be prescribed. The State asks a minimum of five hours of study on the part of every child attending a Public School, and permits only a maximum of six hours. On this basis the State makes an appropriation for the maintenance of such schools. The teacher has the right to insist upon reasonable application and diligence during these hours. If tasks to be fulfilled in addition to these hours are prescribed, the teacher's authority can only be enforced with the implied concurrence of the parent. Where that concurrence is withdrawn by the parent the authority of the teacher lapses. As a matter of law, I would not say that tasks might not be assigned occasionally by way of discipline, if, in the teacher's judgment, it is the most effective way of securing greater application on the part of the pupil. Nor would I wish you to entertain the idea for one moment that I think home lessons are not useful, and, if of the proper character, perfectly safe so far as the pupil's health is concerned. In this, as in many other matters, much must be left to the judgment of the teacher. You have already considered in the Normal School the kind of lesson to be assigned for home study. I may say in a word such lessons should generally involve merely the

exercise of memory and observation. Practice in reading the lessons of the day or in preparing the reading lesson of to-morrow; practice in spelling; the examination of a map with a view to improve a knowledge of geography; the careful reading of a few pages of history, and of other lessons which simply adds to a pupil's previous knowledge, or which, by repetition, is supposed to impress his memory permanently, are proper home lessons. Difficult problems in arithmetic should never be assigned for home study. Practice in speed and accuracy in the elementary rules is quite defensible, but the solution of problems too difficult for the child to solve without assistance, or in fact the solution of any problem not within easy reach of the child's attainments, should be studiously avoided. I think, were we to examine the complaints with regard to home lessons, it would be found that the tasks in arithmetic are responsible for the greater part of such complaints. You may say that unless home lessons are prescribed your pupils will not advance as quickly as they otherwise would. That may be, and I must not be understood as prohibiting the assignment of such lessons, but as merely indicating that they are not prescribed by the regulations, that even when ordered by the teacher any parent has the right to request their non-enforcement in the case of his child, and, thirdly, that where they are assigned they should be of such a character as to increase the pupil's interest in school work rather than to discourage it.

"Let me conclude with a few words about examinations. I need make no defence for examinations in connection with school work. In no country in the world are schools conducted without examinations, and, so far as I know, in no country in the world do teachers forget the fact that a certain number of their pupils, if not all, will

be unable to reach the goal to which they aspire without an examination. It would be no greater folly to say, therefore, that instruction should be imparted without any regard to the examination than to say that rifle practice should be carried on without any regard to the target. The teacher of the Public School, as well as the teacher at a College or University, must feel, whether his pupil is to be examined or not, that, if need be, he will bear examination. Examinations can do no harm where the teacher deals honestly with his pupils, that is, imparts from day to day just as much as the pupil can assimilate and no more. The evil of examinations consists in the fact that pupils are being prepared for them by short cuts and by efforts of memory rather than by methodical and carefully articulated instruction. It is for you so to conduct your school as to avoid such evil practices. Examinations will then be of material advantage as a moderate and helpful stimulus to yourself and pupils, and as a gratifying assurance that your labors were not in vain. If, however, you laboriously load the memory, or systematically select from text-books those portions on which the examiner is most likely to test the class, or if you adopt any other device by which the weakness of your pupils may be concealed from the examiner, the purpose of the examination is being abused, and irreparable harm is done to your own moral character and to the future of your pupils.

"Still another view. Some teachers, forgetting what they owe to their profession, trade in the number of pupils that pass the examinations. I cannot say that you might not rightly claim some credit for the success of your pupils, either at examination or in after life. I would be sorry to deprive you of the pleasure and honor and profit, it may be, to be derived from such success, and I admit that no rule can be laid down for your guidance in this matter. If a board of trustees ask you how your pupils fared at any departmental examinations, you cannot avoid stating that they were successful, if such were the case, and yet I fear that occasionally teachers look to the success of their pupils at examinations, and also that trustees and parents measure the success of teachers in that way more than by the substantial educational results of their work in the schoolroom. Where such a false estimate is made without any responsibility on your part you have but to accept the consequence. All you can do is to avoid as far as possible fostering a false public opinion in a matter of such vital importance to the honor of your profession and the intellectual and moral culture of your pupils."

ENCAENIA OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW BRUNSWICK.*

May it please Your Honor, Mr. President, Gentlemen of the Senate, Mr. President and Gentlemen of the Alumni Society, Ladies and Gentlemen :

Of the founders of old King's College, the one whose name still lives among us is Sir Howard Douglas. In a former address I tried to do some justice to the memory of this remark-

able man after a careful perusal of his life and after some correspondence with his son, General Sir Robert Percy Douglas, who died Sept. 30th, 1891.

Of the founders of what is known to the present generation as the University of New Brunswick, His Honor the Lieut.-Governor, our honored visitor, could speak from personal knowledge,

* Address by Chancellor Harrison, June 2nd, 1898.

for he is one of the few now living who were in the House of Assembly in 1859 when by a vote of 21 to 13 the House decided on the 7th of April that there should be a university which shall be a body corporate by the name and style of the University of New Brunswick. The official list of the 21 who voted yea read as follows: Hon. Mr. Tilley, Hon. Mr. Fisher, Hon. Mr. Watters, Hon. Mr. Brown, Mr. Read, Mr. Gray, Mr. End, Mr. McClelan, Mr. McMillan, Mr. Lawrence, Mr. Allen, Mr. McPhelem, Mr. Macpherson, Mr. Montgomery, Mr. DesBrisay, Mr. McIntosh, Mr. Scovil, Mr. Wilmot, Mr. Vail, Mr. Chandler, Mr. Gilbert. These are names which the province and especially the University should never willingly let die. The Hon. Mr. Fisher once said to me with conscious pride, "If it had not been for me this building would have been given to the moles and the bats." Any body of latter-day legislators who should hand this noble structure over to the moles and the bats would stand forth in most unenviable contrast with the brilliant statesmen of 1859.

"As well kill a good man as kill a good book" said the great Milton. How much greater then I ask would be the crime of killing a good university? The evils brought by such a deed upon the pick and flower of New Brunswick youth would be felt throughout all succeeding generations. New Brunswick would be a poor place to be born in, New Brunswick would be a poor place to emigrate to, New Brunswick would be a country to get out of as soon as possible, if her legislators in an evil hour should deny to her youth "such an education as would enable them to meet on equal terms and hold intercourse with the liberally educated men of other countries."

The elementary schools, the High Schools and the University are the bulwarks of a nation in the war against ignorance, and the legislator

who should succeed in weakening any one of these three interdependent parts of every complete system of public instruction would commit a crime against posterity.

In making these remarks I do not wish to give the impression that there is any danger to be feared from the Government of to-day. They have proved their friendliness to the University by giving a grant for repairs of \$1,500, which passed through the Legislature without a hostile word. With this grant we put a new roof on the building and made many improvements, such as painting the walls of the library in which we are now assembled.

I desire publicly on behalf of the University to make this grateful acknowledgment of the good-will of your Honor's Government. But, in view of the recent attack upon different parts of our educational system, and especially upon the University, I think it necessary to consider the question, "Is there anything in the present state of our Alma Mater that affords the slightest ground in reason for this attempt to place on her throat the political garrotte?"

On the contrary never before was the University so well able to invite a critical investigation of her work as she is to-day, counting seventy students in attendance during the past year, with a full staff of seven professors. I point with pride to the graduating class who occupy twenty chairs in front of me, nineteen candidates for the degree of B.A. and one for the full diploma in civil engineering and land surveying. Here is a class of seventeen young men and three young women, representing the counties of Restigouche, Northumberland, Charlotte, St. John, Kings, York and Carleton, and also the capital of Prince Edward Island, representing also various religious bodies, viz.: The Church of England, the Methodist,

the Baptist, the Free Baptist, and the Presbyterian churches. Here before our eyes is the best possible evidence of what the University is doing for different parts of the province, and for different religious denominations. The generous benefaction the class have agreed to make to their Alma Mater for the next ten years shows whether or not they appreciate the education they have here received.

As to the general body of the students I will let the professors speak by making brief extracts from their official annual reports to the Senate. In my own report I have said :

"It would be difficult to find anywhere a better class of undergraduates. There are few or no idlers now in College."

Dr. Bailey reports as follows : "The work of the classes under my charge has been very satisfactory. The body of the students have been regular, attentive, and diligent, and the progress made all that I could reasonably expect."

Prof. Stockley says : "The Sophomore class in French is more advanced than are most second year's students."

Prof. Davidson says in his report "The Senior class in Economics is, I think, the best class I have ever had in that subject."

Prof. Downing writes that the number of honor students in Physics is greater than at any time since his connection with the institution. For the year the interest and progress of the ordinary classes as a whole have certainly been above the average.

Prof. Raymond reports a marked improvement in the quality of the work done in Greek and Latin.

The minutes of the Board of Discipline will show beyond question that with respect to the relations between the students and the Faculty we have *never before had as satisfactory a year as the one now closing.*

Does our work receive recognition from other Universities? The students who have completed our Engineering course are admitted without examination to the final year at McGill University. The University of Chicago has awarded to one of our graduates a \$300 fellowship. Harvard receives our best graduates with open arms, places them in the final year in Arts, and gives them when necessary a hundred and fifty dollars each from the Price Greenleaf Aid for poor students. Two of our men are now there under these conditions, and several members of this class have received permission to enter the final year in Arts after graduation here. Such is the recognition given to our work by the greatest University on the continent of America. There can be no doubt then that as to what is taught in our Arts and Engineering courses we have the endorsement of those most competent to judge, and the arguments against the University under this head do not affect this University alone. They strike at the established principles and foundation of all collegiate education.

Is the State under any obligations to provide an Arts course? Let no lawyer, however eminent, suppose that his opinion on this matter should weigh equally in the balance with the opinions of educators who have made such problems a life-long study. The names of Ryerson and Dawson are destined to live as long as there is life in Canada. These men have made their pronouncement on this very question in this province and concerning this University. Year after year we publish their immortal answer in our Calendar, "New Brunswick would be retrograding, and would stand out in unenviable contrast with every other civilized country both in Europe and America did she not continue to provide an institute in which her own youth could acquire a collegiate education." "The idea of abolishing the Endowment can-

not be entertained for a moment." The New Brunswick House of Assembly endorsed these opinions in 1859. Does the present House of Assembly contain men better qualified to judge of these high duties of the State than were Gray and Tilley and Wilmot and Fisher, and Chandler and John C. Allen and A. R. McClelan? If so they are indeed a brilliant lot.

The University of Maine has been called on to answer the same question, and this year the Maine Calendar contains on its first page the clear pronouncement of Ralph Waldo Emerson.

"I praise New England because it is the country in the world where is the freest expenditure for education. We have already taken at the planting of these colonies (for aught I know for the first time in the world) the initial step, which for its importance might have been resisted as the most radical of revolutions; thus deciding at the start the destiny of this country, this namely, that the poor man, whom the law does not allow to take an ear of corn when starving nor a pair of shoes for his freezing feet, is allowed to put his hand into the pocket of the rich and say you shall educate me not as you will but as I will, not alone in the elements, but by further provision in the languages, in sciences, in the useful as in the elegant arts. The child shall be taken up by the State and taught at the public cost the rudiments of knowledge, and at the last the ripest results of Art and Science."

I respectfully commend these golden words of Emerson to his popular and energetic namesake the honorable the leader of the Government in New Brunswick, to whose safe-keeping the interests of the University of New Brunswick, at the present time, are largely entrusted and I believe safely entrusted.

In connection with the University

of Maine I shall endeavor to meet an objection against this University, an objection which seems to have force in the mind of the Premier himself. It is this: If you divide our yearly grant by the yearly number of graduates it brings the cost to the province of each graduate in the vicinity of \$800. With us this year this objection scarcely holds, for if you divide the University grant of \$8,844 by 20 we have the modest sum of \$442. But the income of the University of Maine is \$67,000, of which \$15,000 is for an Experimental Station, leaving \$52,000 for salaries and purposes of Instruction. In their latest Calendar the number of graduates was 25. Applying the same elementary process of division we get as the public cost of each graduate the sum of \$2,080 instead of \$442.

The test is by no means an infallible one, but, supposing it cost the Province \$800 to educate Geo. E. Foster, it cost the Dominion of Canada \$8,000 a year to pay the same Hon. Geo. E. Foster for his services as Finance Minister. Supposing it cost the Province \$800 to educate F. E. Barker and J. A. Vanwart, how many thousands a year does the Dominion pay for the services of His Hon. Mr. Justice Barker and His Hon. Mr. Justice Vanwart? I contend that it is not numbers we should aim at so much as the quality of the work we do.

Two men like A. B. Maggs and C. C. Jones, now studying at Harvard, will in the end bring this University more credit than will a score of half educated men.

I have spoken of the living. The Hon. James Mitchell, some time Premier of New Brunswick, who at our last encœnia received the honorary degree of LL.D. and who for so many years ably represented the Alumni Society in the Senate, has gone from us, leaving behind him a reputation of unsullied integrity in all the relations

of life and of unswerving loyalty to the University of New Brunswick. I saw his brother Masons throw the green sprig of friendship into the grave of his rest, and I would fain add my testimony to his sterling worth.

But the Commissioners who sent in their able report in 1854 had something more in view than the primary college with its course of permanent studies in Arts. They recommended additional courses of collegiate instruction. The first of these is that of Civil Engineering and Land Surveying. This the Senate have already provided for, nor can it be denied that the establishment of a chair of Civil Engineering was a move in the right direction. Already thirteen students in engineering have completed successfully the full course of four years and taken their diplomas, and indications point to a considerable increase in this department in September next. The Government engineer has entrusted important work to Professor Dixon, and the Government have the means of knowing the valuable work he is doing here with his pupils, some of whom are now occupying responsible positions.

The second special course of study recommended by the Commissioners was that of Agriculture. There is no doubt that this matter has hitherto received but little attention from the University authorities, chiefly because the funds were not forthcoming. It required a Farmers' Government to bring the question to the front, and I am convinced that the occasion is propitious for doing something real in the direction of Agricultural Education. The Honorable the Commissioner for Agriculture and his Deputy have convinced me that they are in earnest in their desire to have a Professor who could advance the interests of the farming community. During the Easter vacation I spent several days at the University of Maine which has until

lately been regarded as an Agricultural College. President Harris and Prof. Woods, the Director of the Agricultural Department, devoted not a little of their valuable time to further the object of my visit. They gave me freely their advice based on the results of a wide experience. They first disabused my mind of the idea that there would be any necessity for a Model Farm, much less of an Experimental Station in connection with the University in order to do good work in Agricultural Education. After examining our Calendar they said that we should have first and foremost a professor of Agricultural Chemistry. My colleague, Professor Bailey, and myself had previously come to the same conclusion, and the Commissioner for Agriculture and his Deputy had independently expressed the same opinion.

On my return from Bangor I took the first opportunity of informing the Premier of the results of my inquiries and observations. He asked me to make a report to the Government, which I have done at much greater length than would be appropriate on this occasion.

A Professor of Agricultural Chemistry should be able to take the whole subject of chemistry, which is now mainly confined to first year students, and distribute it over as many years as he thinks necessary, thereby at the same time greatly strengthening our science course and enabling Dr. Bailey to devote more attention to other subjects. In the analysis of soils and fertilizers and in formulating rations for milk and meat production the new Professor could do a great work for the farmers of the province. He would be expected to lecture not only in the University, but wherever and whenever the Agricultural Societies required his services. Short winter courses might be offered to intending farmers who are unable to devote a longer time to study. In these lectures the funda-

mental principles of agricultural science might be discussed briefly. The student, while he could not obtain anything like a complete training in six or twelve weeks, might gain an insight into the ways in which science helps agriculture and might be guided and moved to reading at home the most helpful agricultural literature. He would also feel that he would have in the Professor a competent instructor to whom he could write for information.

I have reason to hope that the Government, the Senate, the farmers, the agitators, the Alumni and the students might agree in thinking that the appointment of a Professor of Agricultural Chemistry would conduce to the general prosperity not only of the farming community but of this University.

There is one other matter about which I should like to say a few words before closing this address. We are constantly being told that the University is not in touch with the teachers and schools of the Province. Let us examine this statement with some thoroughness. The subjects for entrance examinations given in the old calendars were arranged by a committee of Grammar and High School teachers appointed at my request at one of our Provincial Institutes for the very purpose of keeping the University in touch with the schools. The changes that have been made from time to time have in almost every instance arisen from some request on the part of the teachers. The July matriculations were instituted by the Chief Superintendent for the express purpose of keeping the University in touch with the schools. All the associate examiners are or have been teachers in our High Schools. Entrance papers are sent to any Grammar School centre where a student wishes to be examined. County scholarships are offered at these examinations.

Inspectors of schools preside. A High School or a Grammar School pupil can thus be sure of entrance to the University without leaving home. Teachers holding a first-class license are allowed to enter upon the second year by passing in languages and chemistry. Our noble-hearted benefactor, the late Asa Dow, whose lamented death we regretfully record this year, has perpetuated his name in the University by founding scholarships for teachers only. We have had this year fourteen licensed teachers among our undergraduates. The Chief Superintendent of Education is President of the Senate, and the Chancellor of the University is a member of the Board of Education. All these are strong connecting links, one would suppose, between the University and the teachers and schools. But these are not all. The teachers elect a representative to the University Senate, who must, however, be a graduate of the University. This last restriction is particularly complained of. I fail to discover any just cause of complaint. Let us look into the complaint. The representative on the Senate of a body of teachers can do but little good unless he is qualified to deal with questions of college education. How can he deal intelligently with these if he has never had a college education? But it may be answered that the teacher might be a graduate of some other college. In that case let him first show his interest in the University of New Brunswick by applying for an *ad eundem* degree and becoming a member of the Alumni Society.

There is one other loud complaint, viz., that the Chancellor of the University does not go about enough among the schools. This is probably true, but it shall be true no longer, for he has made his plans to visit every High and Grammar School in the Province if possible once a year.

And now, my young friends of the graduating class, it is impossible for me to express the mingled feelings that stir within me in trying to say good-bye to you. You have done many good things and achieved many successes. Especially you have done nobly for the University by your generous class benefaction by which you start for the first time in the history of this University a Loan Fund for needy students. The spirit that animated the gift makes me feel young again. It is the best answer to those who

strove to cry us down. The name you give your Alma Mater will spread like wild-fire. It is her best advertisement when a graduating class such as yours will shout "Floreat Academia." The vales will redouble it to the hills, and the sound will reecho through every Grammar School and High School in the Province.

In parting let me say to each one of you, in the words of the Hebrew Prophet, "What does the Lord require of thee but to do justly and to love mercy and to walk humbly with thy God?"

DR. HARRISON'S ADDRESS AT THE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE.

MY fellow teachers,—I would be glad if I could say anything to interest you or encourage you or amuse you on this occasion.

It is just forty years since I received my first appointment as master of the Grammar School at New Glasgow, Nova Scotia, and yet I am a mere youth compared with the veteran Superintendent of Education, for he was a teacher at Sackville Academy, and a married man, when I was but a boy going to boarding school.

I mention these facts to show that, if any of you are ambitious to take our places, the office of Chief Superintendent will in the natural course of events be vacant many a long year before that of Chancellor of the University!

But, if any of you are looking forward thus early to the position which for many years I have had the honor to hold, let me tell you that the laborious teaching of Mathematics in the Lecture Room will not be placed to your credit as Chancellor. You should study rather the art of addressing such assemblies as this present one. No amount of painstaking efficiency with regard to the internal management of the College will satisfy the critics and

agitators. You must show yourself in public and press the claims of the University. This is what I have been doing during the last few weeks in Fredericton, St. John, St. Stephen, Milltown, St. Andrews, and Rothesay, and after the schools open again I hope to complete the round of all the Grammar and High Schools in the Province. I find it very pleasant work and much less wearing upon the nerves than giving mathematical lectures and at the same time trying to control the joyous and overflowing spirits of seventy undergraduates.

We may never hope to satisfy or to put to silence the chronic grumblers. Some men are born grumbling. The July number of *THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY* reproduces at this late date two rather stale and time-worn charges against the University of New Brunswick. One is that for a time we had no college residency; the other that once upon a time there were unseemly wrangles between the students and Faculty. For two years we have had college residency and for thirteen years we have had no unseemly wrangles. This kind of complaint reminds me of an old woman on board ship who kept calling out

ever and anon, "Arrah! mushna, but I am dry, dry, dry." A fellow-passenger gave her a drink, at the same time expressing the hope that she would be quiet. A little while after she began again as loudly as before, "Arrah! mushna, but I *was* dry, dry, dry." Formerly it was "Arrah! mushna, but there *is* no residency"; now the reviewer cries "Arrah! mushna, but there *was* no residency."

For thirteen years there have been no wrangles, but down to this very date the reviewer is exclaiming, "Arrah! mushna, but there *used to be* wrangles." In the same July number there is a repetition of the old charge about failing to appear in public. Let me confess that on one occasion, and probably that is the one in the reviewer's memory, I shrank from upholding the claims of the University for recognition. I was politely invited by letter from a third party to engage in a public spelling match with the Chief Superintendent of Education. The proceeds of the entertainment were to go to a public charity, and it was thought that the contest would draw a crowd. Here was a fine opportunity, but alas for the frailty of my nature. Being a very sensitive man I was averse to being put in pain for my

orthography, neither did I wish to inflict pain upon the Chief Superintendent.

There were other occasions on which I failed to appear owing to the physical difficulty of appearing in two or more places at one and the same time.

In my encæial address I have proved to a demonstration that the University was never more worthy of her place in our educational system than she is to-day. Our Arts and Engineering courses have been approved by the highest authorities on this continent, and, best of all, our graduating classes continue to testify their loyalty and good-will to their *Alma Mater* by very generous class benefactions.

It is very desirable that the University should enlist the sympathy and support of the teaching profession, and the fact that there were fourteen licensed teachers among our undergraduates last year would seem to show that we were fairly successful in that direction.

I beg to welcome you all to the institute, and I trust that

"By mutual intercourse and mutual aid
Much good may be done and great advancement made."

ST. JOHN, June 28th, 1898.

CO-OPERATION IN EDUCATION.

J. L. PICKARD, LL.D., IOWA CITY, IOWA.

CORRELATION and co-ordination have had their day. Warm discussion ceases for a little, while authorities are arranging courses of study. Children will in the end profit by the discussion. The profit will lie along the line of intellectual training. Advance may be more rapid: results may be more permanent. Admit that one year or more may be saved in preparation of youth for active

life—that doctors, lawyers, teachers, scientists may be able to earn a livelihood from a point a little nearer their birth—that greater mental acumen will secure more cash within a given period—does it follow that the world will be by so much the gainer? To make a *living* is desirable, but to develop a true and noble *life* is far more desirable. The man whose name is preserved only in records of probate

is not the equal as a factor in the world's advancement of him whose name is written upon the hearts of his fellowmen. Great wealth acquired by inheritance is rapidly dissipated. Stalwart character shaped by pervasive influences from the life of the true teacher is renewed with increasing force and beauty in generation after generation. These assertions may be trite, literally worn out—but less trite may be found the discussion of co-operation in education. To one phase it is my present purpose to confine myself.

Clubs abound. Some are organized for selfish ends. I do not use the word selfish in its lower signification, but in the better sense of self improvement. Whist clubs, dancing clubs, ball clubs, social clubs, etc., have only pleasure or profit as their end. Historical clubs, art clubs, science clubs, etc., have the nobler aim of self-improvement helped forward by combination of kindred spirits.

There are also clubs entirely altruistic. Such are charitable clubs concerned with the alleviation of physical suffering—mission clubs in support of efforts to advance the spiritual condition of benighted peoples in other lands. These and like organizations devote their energies to the good of others and often at the sacrifice of self.

But clubs are in existence of mixed character seeking the good of others through self-improvement. School masters' clubs are in evidence. Not until Froebel turned the thought of teachers toward little children, and so gave to teachers' associations a purely altruistic trend, did the thought of enlisting parents in educational work take shape. Mothers have become deeply interested in kindergarten work. Though in some measure their interest may have a selfish element, since the kindergartner relieves the mother for a part of the day of the oversight of

restless and inquisitive children, the benefit apparent to the children in a wise direction of their activities and in the formation of careful habits has brought parents into cordial co-operation with teachers, and has led to improvement in the homes.

Co-operation finds a new field opened by President G. Stanley Hall, of Clark University, in "Child Study." Here the parent is at first the prime factor in the co-operative process. The plan of study is clearly outlined by the no less important factor, though of necessity the less prominent—the teacher or the student in psychology.

Why should co-operation end at the point where it can be made more effective? It is certainly not the fault of mothers. The past two years have been prolific of "Mothers' Clubs." Their scope embraces the entire domain of educational agencies employed in the development of a complete manhood. To use the words of a leader: "We hope to bring about a peaceful revolution in the method of bringing up children. We want them to be better, nobler, purer men and women." Local, state and national organization has resulted in a "Congress of Mothers," holding an annual session. Their organ is *The Mothers' Voice*, a monthly publication of sixteen quarto pages—a voice thrilling with interest. "We hope to induce mothers to keep in touch with their children's teachers" is a strong appeal for co-operation. The mother's hand is extended. Will the teacher grasp it? Already the answer comes in a few localities—"We are ready for a long pull, a strong pull, and a pull all together."

Who can estimate the result of sympathetic mothers' and teachers' clubs upon the future of American citizenship?

At the foundation of a right education lies sound health. Teachers grope blindly in ignorance of a child's

physical peculiarities which a mother understands. Mothers are blind to habits which a teacher's practised eye detects. Defective vision, imperfect hearing, often bring children under severe censure at school. A word of explanation from the mother would locate the child in the schoolroom at the most favorable point for overcoming the defect. Children fall into habits of sitting, standing, or walking which eventuate in distortion of the body. The teacher by counselling with the mother may secure help in their correction. The child may be known to the mother as possessing a nervous temperament which the mother has found the way of mitigating but not of entire control. The wise teacher will gladly co-operate with every sensible mother in the use of like methods of discipline. I use the word *sensible* advisedly, for I am aware that home training is not always the most judicious. Conferences of parties in interest will bear favorably upon the home as well as upon the school.

Personal indulgences are noticed at school which are concealed from the mother under the conviction of the child that they are wrong. Such indulgences not only weaken the body but corrupt the moral nature.

Early conference may lead to correction at a time of easy abandonment.

No two children of the same family yield to the same methods of discipline with like successful results. Mothers appreciate the fact, but do not always understand why teachers fail in control of fifty children subjected at their homes to the widest range of discipline. Meetings of teachers and mothers will serve to a better understanding of the difficulties each has to encounter, and will improve the disciplinary methods of both school and home.

Another topic will demand conference in the line of health—hours de-

voted to home study. Mothers do not always understand the importance of regularity in hours, even if they admit the necessity of home study. Children are thus called for trifling service at the convenience of the mother, and by reason of unnecessary interruption fail in proper preparation of lessons for the morrow. A word from the teacher may secure for the children regular and unbroken hours for study. If this regularity is to be secured the mother must be assured that she has control of all hours not belonging to the daily sessions, and teachers must find a way of avoiding detention of pupils after school.

A greater evil than that of calling a child from its study for some errand is that of consenting to infringement of hours for social enjoyment, and the extension of such pleasures into time needed for sleep. The mother who guards her children against loss of health through late hours has a right to ask of teachers a like regard for health and for sweet temper which regular sleep ensures.

As a few hints are thus given I am aware that the remedy after all lies in personal conference. But the need of such personal conference may be suggested in the club meeting, and the way cleared for the meeting in person through the discussion in the club. Both mothers and teachers may return from the meeting, and at once set about a reform which will obviate the necessity for personal conference.

Lack of knowledge as to opportunity for co-operation is responsible for most of the irritation that arises over school affairs both in the school and in the home. A monthly meeting of a club composed of mothers and teachers must minimize the danger of irritation.

Conflicts often arise through mutual misunderstanding of teachers' and parents' rights under the law. Discussion at the fireside from imperfect

knowledge arrays the child against the teacher. Attempted correction of the mother's views through the child does not close the breach. Pride of opinion in personal conferences widens it. An hour's calm conference in the club meeting will settle questions for the entire district, and save the time of a score of personal conferences.

Benefits of co-operation are without

limit. That mothers are named where fathers are equally interested is due to the fact that our social conditions throw the burden of child training upon the mother, especially in cities where the father merits too often the description which the Chicago boy once gave—"The man who usually boards at our house."

—*Education.*

FEELING AS A FACTOR IN EDUCATION.

BY DR. B. A. HINSDALE, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

The tripartite division of the mind Intellect, Feeling, and Will, which was first propounded something more than a century ago, is now, one may say, universally accepted by psychologists. The terms cognition, sensibility, and choice are also used to express the same facts. Moreover, the word faculties is often applied to these fundamental or primary facts, as well as to the subordinate divisions of the intellect; but those who use it for either purpose should take care lest they mislead others, if not themselves. Intellect, Feeling, and Will are not organs or parts of the mind, as the fingers and toes, eyes and ears, are organs or parts of the body; they are simply the forms that mental action or manifestation assumes, or the different elements or phases of consciousness. Certain relations existing among these elements should be briefly stated.

(1) The three faculties, so-called, are never found separate and apart, but always together. A man does not now *know*, then *feel*, and afterwards *choose*, but knows, feels, and chooses all at the same time. In a word, intellect, feeling, and will are the inseparable phases or elements of every fully-developed psychic state. They are found in every complete consciousness. Under this aspect, they have been compared to respiration, circulation, and nutrition, which

go on simultaneously in the human body.

(2) Still every distinct state of consciousness must have a point of beginning, and that is always an act of cognition or knowledge. A man's sensibility is not stirred by an object that he has not yet known, nor can he choose an object that has not yet appealed to him as a possible object of choice. A boy enters the room where I am sitting with an object in his hand I recognize, that is, know, as a telegram, and, with this act of recognition, the whole train of mental action is set in motion.

(3) The three psychic factors are not equally prominent in every state of consciousness: perhaps they are not equally prominent in any such state. Thus we are able to classify states of mind as intellectual, emotional, and practical; but we never mean by these expressions that only intelligence, emotion, or will is present in such state. The fact is they are all present, and that here, as elsewhere, we classify objects of study with reference to what gives them their character.

(4) We classify men and subjects in the same way. When we say that such a man is intellectual or practical, we do not mean that he possesses this faculty only, but that it determines the character of his mind. Thus, a philosopher is marked by thought, an art-

ist by sensibility, a man of affairs by will. And yet, the philosopher has both feeling and will; the poet, both intellect and will; the man of affairs, both intellect and feeling. Manifestly, it is the practical activity of the mind that gives the man of affairs his character. Look at a picture of Bismarck, the man of blood and iron; he looks as though he were composed of frozen purpose or solidified resolution.

(5) Sometimes intellect, feeling, and will tend to vary directly, sometimes to vary inversely. Within limits the more knowledge the more feeling, and *vice versa*; beyond those limits, the more of one the less of the other. When I recognize the telegram in the boy's hand my curiosity is awakened; I decide at once to take, open, and read it; thus I learn more and feel more, and possibly determine upon some course of practical action; and so on until the series is fully worked out, or the resulting state of consciousness is completed. Still it must be remembered that the energy of which the mind is capable at any given time is limited, and that, when this energy is all called out, the more of it that is absorbed by one kind of activity the less there remains to take other forms. No man can think, feel, and act with the highest degree of energy all at the same time. A student does not feel deeply when he is putting forth all his power as we say to solve a mathematical problem. A girl is not likely to think clearly when she has just heard of the death of her mother. Nor can a general find time or talent to devote to philosophical speculations or to indulge in feeling (even of regret for the killed and wounded that lie about him) on the battle field. And yet, every one of the three elements implies the presence of the others; while the three vary continually they can never be separated.

(6) The relative strength of the three factors of mental activity vary

with the age of the individual. Feeling is strongly developed in the child, while the judgment and will are weak. In the well-developed life of the adult feeling, in large measure, has been brought under control, while the logical faculties and the will have become strong.

These elementary psychological facts could be stated much more elaborately and be illustrated at almost any length. It is hoped, however, that they have been made plain. Certainly they are facts that every practical teacher should by all means strongly grasp. Some of the more important applications of these facts to the rearing of children, and especially to teaching, may well engage our attention.

(1) The mental atmosphere of the school-room is a subject of very great interest, and suggests to the teacher practical problems of no little difficulty. Attention is now directed, however, to the amount of feeling, and the kind of feeling, that may safely pervade this atmosphere. If the feeling of the pupil runs in the minor key, he will accomplish little in the way of study or learning. Then, if his feeling is of the opposite character, and is particularly strong, he will accomplish little, if anything, more. The mental attitude of the pupil to his work must also be considered. Nothing is more deadening and fatal to a school than the feeling on the part of the pupils that there is little to be done, or that, if there is much to be done, they cannot do it, and that it makes no great difference anyway. The atmosphere of the school should be charged, on the other hand, with courage, hopefulness, interest. The pupils should believe in their teachers and in themselves. They should think that there is much to be done, and that they can do it, or at least some reasonable part of it. To be sure, the school atmosphere may be overcharged with these elements. The teacher may appreciate

and praise pupils excessively and thus give them false ideas of themselves and of their relation with the world ; and against this practice there are most decisive intellectual as well as moral reasons. A gentle ripple of warm, equable feeling should be kept playing, therefore, through the school-room. Let the teacher, give good heed to the emotional climate of the school.

(2.) Children's intellects will not work with vigor when they are excited by strong feeling, no matter what the character of the feeling may be, whether of pleasure or of pain. If they are unduly excited, or unduly depressed, they cannot really study, and so cannot really learn. The wheels of the mind, so to speak, will not revolve freely in a stream of violent or turbid feeling. They must run free and clear, or they will not keep the machine in vigorous motion. For example, a pupil who is full of rage, deeply mortified, consumed by envy or jealousy, or is strongly expectant of something that lies outside his school work, will accomplish little or nothing so long as he remains in this condition. Nor is this all ; a single pupil in a state of violent excitement will communicate his own feeling to the school of which he is member, and thereby interfere most seriously with its proper work. Accordingly, thunder gusts and cyclones of excitement or passion in the school-house or school-yard sky are strongly to be deprecated. Every experienced teacher knows that indulgence in a paroxysm of emotion by a single pupil at the opening of school in the morning will leave its effects for hours, not merely in the single pupil, but in the teacher and in the school as well. If teachers were always free to do what was best they would often consult the good of individual pupils, and of the whole school, if they sent pupils who were wrought up to a high degree of mental excitement out of the school

until their excitement had subsided. Feeling is communicated from mind to mind even more rapidly and more completely than intelligence.

(3.) Another thing to look to is the relations that exist between pupils and their teacher. If it be true that to secure freedom from undue disturbance of the sensibility is one of the constant tasks of the teacher of the well-regulated school, what shall be said of a school in which the teacher herself is a constant source of such disturbance? Not infrequently this is precisely the case. Even in schools of high rank, it is desirable that students should be on good terms with their teachers. The emotional factor is of much importance to High Schools and of considerable importance in colleges. But in the grades, and particularly the early ones, still more stress must be laid upon this relation. College students have some power of discrimination and some control over their feelings. They may take "Old Crusty's" work, even if they do not like him, and get much good out of it, because he understands his subject and is a good teacher. But young pupils are incapable of any such discrimination or self-control. To do their best work they must *like* their teacher. A child is governed by his feelings almost wholly, and a teacher whom he does not like, or at least strongly dislikes, no matter how accomplished that teacher may be, is necessarily a bad teacher for him. Accordingly, if a teacher, after a fair trial, can not adjust herself to a school, or the school to herself—or, in a word, if she can not bring about a good state of feeling—then the relation should be severed, and the sooner the better. This teacher may succeed admirably in another school ; she may not be to blame for the state of things existing in this one ; but this makes no difference—for the time she is out of place.

Only intellectual results of the emotional factor in education have been dwelt upon. As much, or even more, may be said of the moral result. Great positive evil is engendered in children by the unfortunate relations that exist between them and those under whose oversight they are placed. Some teachers excite children, or particular children, morally as other teachers excite them nervously, in the wrong direction. Children sometimes say, "I can't be quiet *in that school*." The teacher strokes them the wrong way. It is equally true that children can't be good in *that school*. Moreover, much the same that has been said of the teacher may be said of the nurse. Incalculable moral harm has been done to sensitive children by putting them, and keeping them, in the care of nurses and teachers whom they did not like and for whom they felt an aversion. Children may be greatly harmed or wholly ruined by paying too much attention to their notions, whims, and caprices; but that is no reason for refusing to consult, to a reasonable degree, their likes and dislikes in relation to those who have the oversight of them.

Hitherto the school has existed primarily for an intellectual purpose. Its great function has been to train the intellectual faculties. The feelings and the will have always been secondary. And this state of things there is good reason to think will always continue. It is difficult to imagine a system of education as existing primarily for the sake of sensibilities and wills of students. Still it is a fair question whether the other primary faculties of the mind have received, or are receiving, as much attention in schools as is desirable. One thing at least must be borne in mind. This is the fact that the sensibility and the will can not be directly approached by the teacher as the intellect can be, but must rather be approached indirectly. The indi-

vidual does not consciously allow his feelings and his will to be unduly interfered with. The wise preacher who desires to arouse his congregation to love and good works does not say to them, "Now I am going to make you feel as you know you ought to feel," "Now I am going to constrain you to do so that you know you ought to do; but he puts before them" subject matter chosen with reference to the effect that it will produce upon their minds, and thus accomplishes the end before him.

In his book entitled "Mental Physiology" the late Dr. W. B. Carpenter touched thus felicitously one of the topics that have been dealt with above.

"Those 'strong minded' teachers who object to these modes of 'making things pleasant,' as an unworthy and undesirable 'weakness,' are ignorant that, in this stage of the child-mind, the will—that is, the power of *self-control*—is weak; and that the primary object of Education is to encourage and strengthen, not to repress, that power. Great mistakes are often made by parents and teachers, who, being ignorant of this fundamental fact of child-nature, treat as *willfulness* what is in reality just the contrary of will-fulness; being the direct result of the *want* of volitional control over the automatic activity of the brain. To punish a child for the want of obedience which it *has not the power* to render is to inflict an injury which may almost be said to be irreparable. For nothing tends so much to prevent the healthful development of the moral sense as the infliction of punishment which the child *feels to be unjust*; and nothing retards the acquirement of the power of directing the intellectual processes so much as the emotional disturbance which the feeling of injustice provokes. Hence the determination often expressed to 'break the will' of an obstinate child by punishment is

almost certain to strengthen these reactionary influences. Many a child is put into 'durance vile' for not learning the 'little busy bee,' who simply *cannot* give its small mind to the task, whilst disturbed by stern commands and threats of yet severer punishment for a disobedience it cannot help; when a *suggestion* kindly and skilfully

adapted to its automatic nature, by directing the turbid current of thought and feeling into a smoother channel, and *guiding* the activity which it does not attempt to *oppose*, shall bring about the desired result, to the surprise alike of the baffled teacher, the passionate pupil, and the perplexed bystanders." —*Ohio Educational Monthly*.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Deliver not the tasks of might

To weakness, neither hide the ray

From those, not blind, who wait for day,
Tho' sitting girt with doubtful light.

"That from Discussion's lips may fall

With Life, that, working strongly, binds—

Set in all lights by many minds,
So close the interests of all."

It may not be amiss at this time, when examinations in the schools of Ontario are so much considered, to recall their beginning. It is now nearly thirty years since the Council of Public Instruction established the Entrance Examination to Grammar Schools, now our High Schools, in order to prevent the admission of pupils not prepared to begin the study of Latin, but making provision for the admission of such pupils on a lower standard than that of those who did not intend to take Latin. The adoption of this expedient was largely due to the reports of the late Prof. Young, then Inspector of Grammar Schools. The Government grant was only to be divided according to the pupils in attendance, and who had passed this entrance examination. The introduction of this examination brought into activity the spirit of comparison and rivalry.

The masters and teachers in the High Schools, becoming apprehensive lest their schools would be closed, owing to the diminution of the number of scholars in their schools, the legitimate effect of an examination conducted by the Education office, keenly interested themselves to secure a

larger attendance at their schools. This activity was much stimulated by the advent of the Intermediate Examination in 1876, and the attendant payment by results. Under this additional stimulus the examination craze grew apace, and masters who disapproved of the system were rendered powerless by the tide of popular and official demand. As evidence, we need only remind our readers of the lists furnished and published, and circulated after the manner of our enterprising commercial houses. During the last twenty-one years the craze has been increasing. Parents have lost promising sons and daughters; others have been permanently disabled, and are now objects of pity, illustrating the wisdom of the saying of the fathers, *Mens sana in corpore sano*. It is, therefore, a cause of thankfulness that trustees and teachers are bestirring themselves to apply a check which will at least abate in some degree the virulence of the examination spirit in our schools. We congratulate the Guelph Board of Trustees on the stand they have taken in this important matter.

In this issue, we readily comply with the request of publishing the address

delivered by the Hon. the Minister of Education at the close of the summer session of the Toronto Normal School. In this address the Minister deals with one phase of the much discussed subject of examination in our schools. He reminds the country and all concerned of the plain truth that parents and teachers are responsible for the rampant spirit of examination which prevails in and dominates over Ontario. If he had included the children also, his statement would be more accurate and complete. Unquestionably parents have themselves to blame ; for, if they were intelligent enough to have foreseen the evils which have arisen in connection with the introduction of these examinations, they would have forewarned the Minister of Education, and, for that matter, the Government of which he was a member, that the proposed course was hurtful to the true interests of education. That warning from the electorate would have been sufficient, and doubtless a more rational mode of dealing with our school could have been found and adopted. After a quarter of a century's experience, every right-minded man deplors the bitter fruit of our present system. How we may render it tolerable and even good is our duty. The Minister is repeating now what he told us before : we are not bound to meddle with these examinations at all ; leave them alone. In effect, he reminds us that we are British subjects ; think, therefore, and act as wise men.

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The late discussion in the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church over the intellectual and theological training of the clergy of that denomination has in it a lesson for every province in the Dominion that has an ambition to make the most of their educational resources. There is not a province that has not met at the threshold of any movement in favor of school reform the asseverations of

Principal Forrest, of Dalhousie College, Halifax, that "All is well along the Potomac, whatever may be the trouble among the busybodies of Washington." When Ontario entered upon its career of educational progress there were heard the cries of the anti-Ryersonites, who claimed that changes were unwholesome and altogether unnecessary. The same antagonisms have been experienced in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, and we all have lately been called upon to learn by heart the story of Manitoba's educational unrighteousness, in theory at least. Even in Quebec, where things educational are supposed by some to be anything but what they ought to be, there are to be found men with the cry of Dr. Forrest as their watchword, proclaiming that the elementary schools are better than they are supposed to be, even in the face of the facts themselves, as honestly collected by the Montreal *Herald* and others. It is not our purpose to discuss the intellectual status of our clergy. That question was fully discussed at the Presbyterian Assembly, and the Presbyterian Church owes a debt of gratitude to the Rev. Dr. Miligan, of Toronto, for his fearless utterances on the floor of the church courts, and many must be pleased at the honest endorsement they received from many of the more prominent members present. The thesis now before the Church, and which ought to be discussed in every denomination in Canada, is : Are the men of the pulpit keeping abreast of the times ? Is the pew becoming more intelligent than the pulpit ? Is the college training of our future ministers what it ought to be ? The Rev. Dr. Grant, of Kingston, and other gentlemen of the theological halls, though their own citadels were being somewhat indirectly assailed, took no stock in Dr. Forrest's *ad vulgus captandum* appeal in favor of the east by way of contrast with the

west. Is a Church to stand still because one man proclaims that to urge reform is no better than the most shockingly sinful fault-finding? The Very Reverend Principal of Queen's University even went the length of pointing out, with a ripple of good humor in the wake of his words, the illogical standpoint of the men who are ever ready to sing in chorus "All's Well," even in face of the restless parade of the ghost of Hamlet's father, and the consensus over his grievances. And we are glad at the issue of the discussion, if only the committee appointed to look into the matter of selecting more intellectual men for the pulpit and of giving them a more thorough theological training in college will only as fearlessly do their duty as did the members of the Church in council while urging the necessity of reform.

In the discussion referred to, there was brought into view the responsibilities of the examiners themselves; and there seemed to be a growing feeling in favor of outside examiners. No institution can have a healthy public opinion for long in its favor that refuses to have outsiders associated with the members of the faculty in arriving at the true standing of each student, as he passes from the halls of learning to the professional activities of the world. The examinations of several of our institutions are still solely in the hands of the professors. Others have placed their examinations altogether in the hands of outsiders, while others have arranged for an examining board that comprises members of the various faculties and outsiders in equal proportion. Against the last arrangement there seems to be no possible objection, since there is in it protection to the students alike against professorial prejudices, and the puzzles of the scopeless examiner, as well as the securing of a complete faith on the part

of the public in the final awards. The institution, be it High School, Normal School, or College, that is afraid of open inspection is in anything but a healthy condition, and all the newspaper puffings about its efficiency and about the intellectual achievements of its students can do little to remove the clouds of dubiety that hang over its organization, when a candid opinion comes to be demanded of its true status. In the case in point, the preparation of aspirants to the ministry, there is no reason why there should not be an outside examining board altogether. There is such a board in connection with the other professions, and we all know, as teachers, how impossible it has now become in the various provinces to reach a responsible position in any of our schools without a well-tested preparatory training. There is no need for more than one University in any of the provinces of Canada, the chief function of the University being what it is, and, were it not for the circumstances attending the earlier developments of some of our universities and the fostering prejudices that stand in the way of amalgamation, one university might be found sufficient for Canada. But, with education under the immediate supervision of each province, there is no more prospect that there ever will be only one examining body in Canada in connection with graduation in Arts, than there is of a national system of schools. This, however, need not discourage those who, with a logic that cannot be overlooked, advocate a system of examination that will ensure the perpetuation of every scholastic institution in the country on its own merits, and not from the adventitious sooth-saying of its officials, or the denominational sympathies that have crowded round it from its origin. We think we are safe in saying that no institution can feel justified in drawing a grant from the public treasury that

does not submit its work to outside inspection and examination ; and the community is a strange one in this age of democratic tendencies that will suffer an institution to draw from the civic or provincial treasury, and yet keep its doors closed against the investigation of the public as to the character of its work. Some of our readers may wish to know if there is any such institution, school, or college, in the country, supported by any portion of the public funds, which is in a position such as that we have indicated above. But it is not our purpose to particularize. That may come in time. All we plead for is a system of examination in connection with all our educational institutions that will place them as successful institutions on a more secure foundation than the mere hearsay of those who are personally interested in their perpetuation irrespective of their inefficiency and the non-necessity of their existence.

In a volume, which the Canadian teacher is sure to prize, the Deputy-Minister of Education has issued under the auspices of the Education Department of Ontario an excellent series of articles on the condition of the schools in the United States with special reference to the educational resources of the city of New York. It is only by comparison that we are able to know what advances we are making in Canada or to see wherein improvements press upon us as a necessity. Not long ago, there was said to have

been quite a fluttering of the court of "king-makers," as our Montreal correspondent calls them, over "the telling of tales out of school." Somebody had dared to speak the truth about our school systems in Canada in presence of a gathering of teachers of the United States, and the loyalty that seeketh but its own, was indignant at some of the animadversions made, as it, no doubt, will be with the advice which the Rev. Dr. Adams has dared to give the Government. But the school system that is ashamed of being compared with other school systems or of fearless introspection is as poor-spirited as the man who examines his own pupils and declares with loud acclaim that, since they all continue to pass with high marks the institution he supervises is in a very high state of efficiency. And we are glad that Mr. Millar has led the way in telling us what other people are doing in the field of school-work, so the various Canadian provinces may take warning of their deficiencies or safely congratulate themselves on the efficiencies in which they surpass. As supplementary to Mr. Millar's praiseworthy efforts, we select an article for our readers from *Chambers' Journal*, in which a teacher from the Old Country gives his experiences while in the service of the New York educational authorities ; and we have no doubt that these experiences and Mr. Millar's carefully compiled and well-written book will lead us all to think more about others in order that we may think all the better of ourselves in an honest way.

CURRENT EVENTS.

IT was a matter of the greatest regret to those who have known the interest with which the Hon. Dr. Ross, Minister of Education for Ontario, has watched over the first beginnings of the Educational Association of Canada, that on account of the pressure of parliamentary duties, thus early in the year, he was unable to be present. If the living voice of "the Orator of the West" was not heard, his message was well received, and, when his suggestion in favor of "an Empire Day" was announced, there was no dissension heard against it. It was also a matter of regret that Dr. George Parkin, of the Upper Canada College, failed to put in an appearance, although his name appeared on the programme of one of the public meetings held in the Academy of Music. There is no doubt but the many old-time friends of Dr. Pope, made when he was one of the prominent teachers in New Brunswick, were sorry to miss the opportunity of giving him a hearty welcome amongst them again. Manitoba also failed to send a representation, although the traverses farther west did not fail to do so, notwithstanding the unrest which seems to prevail at the present time in British Columbia. If we are not mistaken, Dr. Pope, the Superintendent of that Province, is a native of the Lower Provinces, and, though he was not able to be present himself, he succeeded in securing a substitute in Principal Eaton, of the High School of Victoria.

There are many teachers in British Columbia who hail from the Eastern Provinces, and had the distance not been so great they would, no doubt, have taken the opportunity of refreshing the recollections they have of the school systems by the sea. One of these teachers is Miss Williams, the Lady Principal of the Girls' High School of Victoria, a trained teacher

of Prince Edward Island, who has held her present position for a number of years with acceptance amongst the citizens of that city.

The little, red island in the Gulf was fittingly represented at the great convention by the Superintendent of Education of that province and by several of the teachers from the city of Charlottetown. The reports from Prince Edward Island are very gratifying, especially in connection with the city educational affairs, where the Government have decided to erect a new and spacious building for the accommodation of the students attending the Prince of Wales College and the Normal School.

This institution is one of the oldest in the Province, having been known as the Central Academy previous to the visit of the Prince of Wales in 1860, when, in honor of his visit to the "tight little island of the gulf," it has ever since borne the title then bestowed upon it. The educational system of this part of the Dominion has undergone many changes since the days of the first inspector, Mr. John McNeill. The present Superintendent is a native of the Province, and his presence in the high position he occupies may not only be taken as an evidence of his fitness for the position, but as an exponent of the feeling which prevails in that sequestered nook, that they need no new blood from the neighboring provinces to introduce changes.

The Normal School, as it was constituted after the time of the inauguration of the present free school system, was organized under the principalship of Dr. Harper, now of Quebec, but, under the plan of amalgamation, it now forms an annex to the Prince of Wales College proper. Principal Miller, of the Kent Street School, was also present at the convention.

As an old and faithful servant of

the Charlottetown School Board, great credit is due to him for the spirit of co-operation he has always exhibited in the matter of school development in his native Province. There has been a change of Premiers lately through the withdrawal from the Island of the Hon. Mr. Peters and the elevation of the Hon. Mr. Warburton to the Bench, and now, under the leadership of the Hon. Donald Farquharson, many improvements will, no doubt, be effected that will lead to the very best results in educational circles.

The smallness of the representation from New Brunswick was somewhat of a surprise, considering the travelling advantages between the two provinces and the reduction of rates which the Board of Directors had been able to secure from the railway and steamboat companies. It is quite possible that, had a legal extension of the holiday season been secured for the teachers of that section, as was happily secured for the teachers of Nova Scotia, the numbers attending the meeting would probably have been too great for the accommodation. As it was, the Superintendent of Education of New Brunswick, Dr. Inch, was present at the various meetings, and, by his urbane and pleasant advocacies, introduced many ideas which were of service to the teachers and educationists present. As far as could be ascertained from the teachers of St. John who put in an appearance, the schools of that centre continue to flourish under the superintendency of Dr. Bridges. The frictions of the past year have now all but disappeared. A fine new building, erected for the accommodation of the Grammar and High Schools, stands as the crowning glory of the system inaugurated under the chairmanship of Mr. Keans, and further matured by the Hon. Mr. Boyd. If the mantle of the preceding School Boards of this city has really fallen upon their present successors,

there need be no fear for the future of the schools of the city of the Loyalists. Among the teachers who were present at the convention, three of them, at least, witnessed the inauguration of Mr. Keans' régime under the kindly superintendency of Dr. John Bennet, these being Principal Montgomery, of the Albert School, Carleton, and Principals McLane and Stoddart, of two of the city schools. Another gentleman who witnessed the inauguration of the free school system, and who was present, was Professor Herbert Creed, of the Normal School, Fredericton, whose connection with the school conventions of Nova Scotia and the educational institutions of New Brunswick dates back to the very early period. We have every reason to believe that the New Brunswick schools continue to hold, under the superintendency of Dr. Inch, the position which has been accorded to them in the estimate made of the schools of the other provinces of Canada.

Dalhousie College, the building in which the great convention of the Dominion Educational Association was held, is a spacious structure, erected on the outskirts of the city, not far from the tastily laid out public gardens. The building is of modern date, an arrangement having been made whereby the old building, situated in the heart of the city, was transferred to the city authorities and by them utilized as a City Hall. The institution has a history of its own which cannot but be of interest to all those who have watched carefully the educational developments of our country.

It was founded on the model of Edinburgh University in 1821, by the Earl of Dalhousie, when he was Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia, and through the liberality of its later patrons it was reorganized and re-equipped in 1863, and in the 70's. It was not the first institution of the kind established in Nova Scotia, for the

Pictou Academy or Classical and Theological School had been organized by the old pioneers of religious and educational enterprise in Nova Scotia.

Many years before, while King's College had been established by the Episcopalians at Windsor, a year or two before the Earl of Dalhousie came to the country, one of the most liberal of its many liberal patrons was George Munro, the millionaire publisher of New York, who, as a native of the Province, gave largely of his means, alike for the endowment of the institution as a whole, the endowment of several new chairs, and the payment of numerous bursaries, to encourage a larger attendance at the classes by students from all parts of Canada. There are now fully organized faculties in arts, science, law, and medicine, and the teachers in attendance at the convention had ample opportunity of examining the various halls and classes, the scientific apparatus, library, and museum. Many of the rooms and corridors were tastefully adorned with the various school exhibits—a collection of specimens of school work greatly enhanced by the school apparatus, exhibited by the various publishers from Toronto and elsewhere. The rooms, in some instances, were too small for the numbers in attendance at the various sections, and some inconvenience was especially experienced at the general meetings in the library from the fact that only about half of those in attendance could be accommodated with seats. The greatest credit, however, was due to the Rev. Principal Forrest and the college attendance for the manner in which he looked after the comfort of the members in attendance, and it was admitted on all hands that the meeting was one of the greatest educational gatherings ever held in the Maritime Provinces.

The last convocation of Bishop's

College, Lennoxville, gave not a little significance to the efforts which have been put forth under Principal Adams' régime to raise the institution in the estimation of the community, and to promote its prestige as one of the three Universities of the Province. Bishop's College occupies a unique position among the educational institutions of Quebec, as its buildings certainly occupy one of the most picturesque sites that could have been selected for a college quadrangle. The grouping of buildings is a round, spacious quadrangle on a bit of rising, peninsular ground at the confluence of the Massawippi with the St. Francis, and, as far as the natural environment is concerned, there is every convenience for the development of the physique of the students in attendance as well as for the promotion of their health. There is excellent boating to be had on the rivers, and a splendid campus for the games of the students. In appropriating the halls and places of residence the same wholesome surroundings are to be observed. Around the quadrangle are arranged the Theological Hall, the main building of residence, the beautiful little chapel, the spacious buildings for the school, the Williams' wing, and the gymnasium. At the convocation there were bestowed several degrees, not only upon prominent men from abroad and from the other provinces, but on many of the "old boys," who had been maturing their scholarship or had attained some distinction in the walks of life which they had chosen. Two highly distinguished men who have no connection with the Anglican body received the degree of D.C.L., namely, Principal Grant, of Queen's University, Ontario, and Dr. Robert Lily, the encyclopædist, of New York. Bishop Potter, of New York, and the Bishop of New Hampshire were honored with degrees, as were also Dr. Tyles, the etymologist, Professor Scarth, Hon.

Mr. Ives, and Sir James Edgar, Speaker of the House of Commons, Ottawa. An institution that thus brings itself in touch with its outer environment enlists the sympathies of all who take an interest in the welfare of education, and much of the success which has attended the institution in these later days may justly be given to the energetic and scholarly Principal of the College. The closing ceremonies were graced by the presence of the Chancellor, Dr. Heneker, who presided on the occasion with his usual urbanity.

Arrangements have been made for penny postage between Great Britain, Canada, Newfoundland, Cape Colony, Natal, and such Crown colonies as are willing to adopt it. The Australian colonies remain outside the scheme, one reason being that, in order to increase the revenue, internal postage in Australia has been raised from a penny to twopence. There is every reason to hope that before many years have passed a universal system of penny postage will be adopted throughout the Empire. The far-reaching effects of such a change can scarcely yet be appreciated. The colonies will be drawn closer to the mother country; they will be removed, as the *Spectator* reminds us, from the category of foreign regions into the home-world of Britain. The number of letters passing constantly to and fro will be enormously increased, the bond between severed families will be tightened, and the poorest emigrant will no longer feel that his home at the "world's far end" is his only home, and that a gulf like death divides him from his early friends. In view of the advantages, practical and commercial as well as sentimental, that must follow from this change, the wonder is that it did not take place sooner. Mr. Henniker Heaton, who has fought the battle almost single-handed for so many years, has now reaped the first-fruits of

victory. But the credit for actually bringing the question to an issue belongs to the Canadian Government, which proposed penny postage last autumn.

In framing regulation 87, as found in the revised regulations of 1896, the object was to meet the different conditions of various parts of the Province. In a few inspectorates some difficulty was experienced in securing a sufficient number of properly qualified teachers, while in other localities the number of teachers appeared to be in excess of the demand. It is desirable that all successful teachers having Junior Leaving standing should be encouraged to obtain second-class certificates. It is found that in many counties the supply of teachers has warranted the Board of Examiners in refusing to grant renewals of any kind, while in other places renewals have been granted only to those holding Junior Leaving standing, and who have proved themselves successful teachers.

As an outcome of this action, the number of applicants for admission to the Normal Schools is greater than can at present be accommodated. Under these circumstances the County Board might fairly consider the propriety of granting a renewal, under regulation 87, to teachers holding expired third-class certificates, who have the necessary Junior Leaving standing, provided evidence is given that they were unable, on application, to gain admission into either Normal School. This would protect them against the consequence of a condition in which they may find themselves, from no fault on their part.

GREATER EGYPT AND THE NEW ERA.

The success of the expedition against the Dervishes indicates the resumption by England of a task begun by an Englishman more than a score years

ago, and the abandonment of which to other hands cost England an enormous sacrifice of blood and treasure. Every point in the ascent of the Nile from Assouan to its sources has acquired a dramatic interest in relation to British exploration, administration or warlike achievement that throws the ancient history of that famous river into the shades of oblivion. Of that interest Khartoum, where Gordon watched and waited and died, is the central stronghold. He first set foot in that fatal city on the 18th of March, 1874, and was received with protestations of friendship by the Governor, Ismail Yakoob. From there he issued his first decree as Governor of the Equator. He then set out for Gondokoro, bearing the Khedive's firman, and, after a good deal of locomotion, he succeeded in organizing his province, stationing his lieutenants, raising a native military force, putting down the slave trade and making his name respected. In order to assure the last result, he convinced a venal generation of his own utter integrity by declining to accept more than £2,000 salary, though he was offered £10,000. He wished them to know that neither self-advancement nor self-enrichment was his aim. During his three years' governorship at the Equator he served a rough apprenticeship for the higher responsibilities of Governor-General of the Soudan. After three more years of journeyman work he could then say that through the whole extent of the Soudan no man could lift his hand without the Governor's leave. By what combination of qualities he attained so complete a success in that great wild region may be conjectured from two incidents in his career. When the Chinese treacherously slew the rebel chiefs to whom he had pledged his honor for their safety, he wept like a child. Yet Statin Pasha saw him in the very thick of a battle with "those horribly plucky Arabs" coolly light a cigarette. It

was by his fearlessness, his stern sense of justice, his sympathy with the colored races in their conflict with wrong, his unshakable firmness, and his splendid courage that he won such an ascendancy over the minds of the Soudanese. That such a man should have been trapped and held and slain in his own old stronghold was a reproach to barbarism, a disgrace to civilization.

How did it come about? * How did it happen that all his successes in the regions of the Upper Nile were made to pass for naught, and in the irony of untoward fate to contribute to his death? What influences had been at work between 1879, when he left the Soudan orderly and prosperous, and 1884, when he undertook the mission from which he was never to return? It would be a mistake, doubtless, to regard Gordon as a man whose judgment never erred. He obeyed suggestions from within, and impressions, of which no one else knew the source, and sometimes himself but vaguely. Though often clear and practical, he did not always pursue a direct or consistent course, as is shown in his varying attitude towards the slavery question and towards Zebehr, whose son he had put to death. But no mistake of his is of the slightest moment in comparison with the blunders and the crimes of those who rejected his counsel and betrayed his confidence. How far he was right in defending Ismail against those who supplanted him it is needless to ask, but that he was correct in his estimate of the influences that had caused the revolution in the Soudan cannot well be disputed. There is no doubt that Gordon had hardly withdrawn from the Soudan when the corruptions and exactions which the Soudanese identified with Egyptian rule began to recover their predominance, so that discontent and resistance to official injustice soon spread from centre to circumference.

Evils that Gordon had kept in check broke out anew and those who had gone up from the Delta aggravated the unrest by telling of designs that were being hatched there. In the very year after Gordon's departure Mohammed Ahmed began his strange career, and among those that gathered around him was the Khalifa Abdullah, now a fugitive. Arabi's rising first called for measures of repression on the part of the new Khedive and the Dual Control. It fell to England to put him down. But Mahdism has a vitality that the Government at Cairo was slow to realize. When the year 1884 began Ahmed and his lieutenant, Osman Digma, had the mastery in the whole Soudan save the tract from (and including) Khartoum to Dongola. Then was made the disastrous announcement that Egypt was to evacuate her upper provinces, thus giving the Soudanese to understand that

Ahmed was resistless. Then and not till then, when the situation had become desperate, did the British Government have recourse to General Gordon. A year earlier the mission that, even at the last hour he so cheerfully undertook, might have been successful. How any chance of success was made impossible by delay in answering his appeal or his more pathetic silence all the world is aware.

And now what he said has come true. It has cost much more to win back the provinces, once abandoned, than it would have cost by promptness, vigilance and energy to have retained them. Still it is a grand victory that the Sirdar has won—a victory that marks the beginning of a new era for the larger Egypt of Mehemet Ali's ambition, of Gordon's forecast. May it be an era of justice, progress, prosperity and happiness.—*Montreal Gazette*.

MAGAZINE AND BOOK REVIEWS.

THE *Atlantic Monthly* has considered summer weather, and has made its August number to partake largely of fiction. Where Angels Fear to Tread, The Tinkling Simlius, and The Commodore, are three short stories that may be read without fear of disappointment or disapproval. Those who read many magazines will have noticed that Mr. Richard Hovey has been turning his attention to love sonnets. There is a fine one here, After the Day's Business. My Friend Ah-Chy is an agreeable Chinese reminiscence, by Christina Ritchie. The Spanish character is considered by Irving Babbitt, and W. D. Howells contributes an enthusiastic criticism of the late Edward Bellamy.

The *Century Magazine* is still devoting itself to war, eleven contributions can be said to have some relation

to it, including Sangre de Cristo, a romance of Spanish America, and A Mother of Spain, a short piece of verse, by Minnie Leona Upton. Outside of the war, Sarah Orne Jewett has a short story called The Coon Dog, and there is a splendid instalment of The Adventures of Francois.

Littell's Living Age, for August 6th, reproduces a slashing piece of criticism in the old style from *Blackwood's Magazine*, entitled Among the Young Lions.

The *American Monthly Review of Reviews* apparently approves of the present Anglo-American Alliance. Last month it collected numerous specimens of the kind things various writers in the States had said about Britain. This month appears British Greetings and Tributes to America. One of the main articles on the war is by Winston

Churchill, the author apparently of *The Celebrity*, and not the gentleman who wrote recently of Indian wars. It might be a good thing for these two writers to adopt some distinguishing mark. The Spanish cartoons on the Spanish-American war are really quite pathetic, now that it is over.

There is a charming little story called *Uncle Labon* in *The Youth's Companion* for August 4th. It is about an old man who needed some one to be kind to him, and who found a very decent kind of a young woman who was willing to undertake the duty. But it is to be hoped that the readers of *The Youth's Companion* won't forget about it. There are a great many old people in the world who might be happier than they are. Mr. C. A. Stephens contributes a story in two parts of the bombardment of Alexandria.

From The Copp, Clark Company, Front street, Toronto, may be obtained a number of well-selected books for summer reading at a moderate price. Among these may be mentioned *The Pride of Jennico*, by Agnes and Egerton Castle, which is a charming tale of a German country, not altogether unlike that land in which the eager reader discovered the castle that made Zenda what it is. But the family of Jennico has traits of its own most agreeable to read about, and it finally captures by exciting means a very sweet princess. There is a secret which may be discovered by a master reader on the 34th page, but it serves its purpose very well for all that.

The *Girl at Cobhurst* is the latest effort that Mr. Frank R. Stockton has made on behalf of his many admirers, and they cannot but be pleased with it. Stockton's people are all characters, most of them are odd, but none of them are foolish, and many of us cannot help but wish that we might meet a few of them. How charming

it would be to go out some day and encounter Miss Panney coming to find out all about one! But in order to make the acquaintance of Miss Panney, La Fleur, and the Doctor's wife one must read *The Girl at Cobhurst*.

The School for Saints, by John Oliver Hobbes, is evidently the product of a union of wit to a studious mind. The lady who wrote it has already been intrusted with the writing of a life of Disraeli, and Disraeli, outlined with astonishing skill, is one of the most interesting characters in this book. But let not the indolent be afraid, there is nothing incompatible with a hammock in the reading of *The School for Saints*.

Richard Harding Davis is at present, one supposes, engaged in writing the history of the late war, but before the war began *The King's Jackal*, illustrated by Mr. Gibson, was appearing in *Scribner's Magazine*. Now it is printed in a book, and one may make the acquaintance of Kalonay at one's leisure. The story is interesting. Mr. Davis is always interesting, and his views of life are exceedingly romantic, but he might do better work even than *The Soldiers of Fortune*, and *The Soldiers of Fortune* was better work than this.

John Marmaduke, by Samuel Harden Church, is a story well worth reading. The fighting, and a great deal there is of it, takes place in Ireland in the time of Cromwell. The hero is a hero, but the heroine is worth her weight in gold, which numerous readers have, doubtless, already paid for her.

Weeping Ferry, by Margaret L. Woods, appeared a short time ago as the complete novel in one of the numbers of *Lippincott's Magazine*. Now it makes quite a stout volume, printed along with a couple of short stories in

Longman's Colonial Library. The author is a writer of established reputation, and knows the rules of her craft, as may be seen in this interesting and well-balanced story.

Dawn, by Rider Haggard, is another of the issues of Longman's Colonial Library. It is a very long and complicated story, and has an awful dog called Snarleyow as one of its characters. Indeed, the trials of the heroine and her beauty are quite on a par, and they both extend through many exciting pages.

The August *Lippincott* contains its complete story "The Last Rebel," by Joseph A. Altsheier. This is an interesting tale of the Civil War. The verse is well up to the average, and a quatrain by Helen Gray Cone, entitled "Desire of Fame," is specially good. The new status of our neighbors is indicated in an article by Fred. Perry Powers, "The United States as a Colonial Power"; this article should be read and appreciated by every patriotic American who sees *Lippincott*, it is so full of sound common sense and statesmanship.

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES.

VENUS, the brilliant evening star, which we all have admired during the mid-summer days, reaches her greatest elongation east of the sun on September 22nd, at a distance of forty-six degrees. When we remember that the sun is then in the vernal equinoctial point we see that Venus, so far to the east, must be in far south declination and does not remain long above the horizon after sunset. When the elongation occurs in the spring months the planet is a beautiful object, high in the heavens for nearly four hours after sunset. In the telescope, Venus is half-moon shape, and not yet at her brightest. Dark tints on the disc have been observed, but the genuineness of the many surface markings, drawn at the now celebrated Lowell observatory, is not yet established.

Jupiter is almost gone into the sun's rays. It will be impossible to see the satellites after the middle of the month, until November, when the planet comes round on the other side of the sun as morning star. Saturn may be still fairly well observed during September, though it is also nearing the sun and setting early in the evening. It has been a magnificent object in

the telescope during the summer, the plane of the ring being at the maximum angle to our line of sight, and therefore broadly opened out.

In view of the rapidly accumulating mass of literature treating of the planet Mars, it is not too early to begin observation in September. He rises before midnight towards the end of September, and if we sit up late enough to see the stars of Gemini we have the little red disc of Mars among them. The opposition of Mars occurs early next year, and, although it will not be a favorable one on account of the planet's distance, yet the giant telescopes, with their high magnifying power and great light grasp, will probably add something more to the stock of knowledge. The latest publication discussing this ever interesting object is from the observatory of Lussinpiccolo, in Istria. Prof. Herr Brenner, a renowned observer, gives a large number of drawings and a map of the whole surface. The remarkable features, called canals, are all shown in his drawings, and also the dark patches, like oases, at the junction of two or more of the straight lines.

To the mathematical astronomer the

oppositions of Mars have been interesting events, as affording a means of determining the sun's distance. But it is now found that observations of the minor planets between Mars and Jupiter will give the most accurate results. The astronomers at the Cape of Good Hope have published the details of their work in this direction, and have arrived at an estimate which will now be accepted as final. The minor planets are near enough to have a measurable displacement on account of parallax, and if this angle is known

the distance is known; then if the linear distance of any one planet is known we have an accurate measuring rod for the whole system. The advantage in observing the minor planets lies chiefly in this, that they are merely points of light in the telescope. Their positions, therefore, can be much more accurately determined than is possible with Venus or Mars, where several corrections are necessary before an observation of the limb can be reduced to the centre of the disc.

THOS. LINDSAY, Toronto.

This is what the Bishop of London is reported in the papers to have said: "People knew nothing about education, and cared nothing. England really possessed no public opinion, and was entirely indifferent in the matter. All people troubled about was getting their children pushed through school, and they seemed to regret that education could not be laid on by means of a pipe like gas and water, and that the

sooner the pipe was detached the better. He felt he was not exaggerating when he said that that was the opinion of the general body of Englishmen on the question." Dr. Creighton well expresses the root of the difficulty in all "education questions." The general public does not care. Consequently there is in England at present no public opinion on the matter.

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THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

OCTOBER, 1898.

EARLY IMPRESSIONS AS A TEACHER.

BY MAUDE PETIT.

WHEN asked to take this position it was natural I should feel some uneasiness, since my province never before extended beyond the boundaries of fiction. But for the sake of my hearers I promise this time, when I digress into fiction, to found it entirely upon facts.

I shall take you (if you will permit) as my imaginary heroine (I say heroine, for men have good reasons for deserting our ranks, though it is a profession in which we often feel we need the strength of manhood). I shall start your career in the Model School, for it is there we stand upon the threshold of our future.

There is perhaps no more exciting phase in Model School life than that of applying for schools. Do you remember that bright Saturday morning in the autumn, when you rose with the pleasantly exhilarated feeling which comes from doing something out of the everyday routine? You lingered before the mirror a moment to make sure that your cheek had that tint of rose, and your eye that brilliancy which certifies robust health. Then, armed with good spirits and good testimonials, you made your first plunge into the practical, business world, where you soon found men did battle for bread and butter with as much anxiety as though the universe depended upon the satisfaction of their needs.

You remember well that house where you made your first application. You had driven through several miles of rich fertile fields and orchards, where the trees were dropping their golden and rosy gifts. You were beginning to feel what a fair and prosperous land is ours when you paused at the door of a handsome country residence. It was such a beautiful scene surrounding you, as you awaited an answer to your knock. The little brook murmuring at the foot of the hill, the cattle resting in the shadow of the elms, the sheep upon the hill-sides; orchard and meadow land smiling in the sunlight, and farther off the acres of standing forest. Everything was so suggestive of plenty and of comfort, you fell to picturing what might be within; bookshelves lined with the cream of thought; poetry and music. You pictured the inmates gathering together in the long winter evenings over Tennyson, Ruskin or Shakespeare, while the paintings of a Taylor or a Hammond look down upon them from the wall. You soon found they were too materialistic for things of that nature. Your dream was broken upon. Some one had opened the door, and you were being ushered into the presence of the secretary of Oakville school. You were perhaps overly self-confident. For had you not taken honor matriculation and been congratulated and flattered by all

your friends? You had yet to learn that in this fair land of ours education counts for very little—the merest trifle in applying for a school. If a medalist from Oxford or Cambridge were to apply for a rural school beside a person holding a third-class certificate, we all know that the holder of the third class could get the school by coming under ten dollars.

But, to return from fact to fiction, we left our school secretary discussing upon the multitude of teachers (not a very encouraging subject to an applicant).

“What’s yer figures?” asked he.

“Three hundred dollars.”

“Three hundred dollars? Oh, that’s too high.”

“Why, I thought you were paying three twenty-five.”

“Well, we hev been a payin’ that, but we’ve got teachers offering to do it fur two hundred dollars! Experienced teachers, too. There’s Warden’s son over here on the 9th. He offers to do it fer two hundred and fifty dollars, and pay the janitor out a’ that. We always payed him twenty dollars.”

Warden! The name suggests a fine brick farm-house you have passed, a man who owns two hundred acres of land and three or four mortgages besides. It also suggests a nice appearing young man in the Model School whom I shall not attempt to describe, since he is here in the convention with us (under another name).

Your pride swelled up for a moment as you left the house. These were the people you were to serve! to cringe and bow low to! the people of “the almighty dollar, the fifty-cent piece and the copper cent.” It was to prepare for this you had spent your best years and labor. You turned again to your own profession—the profession you had gloried in, idealized! And yet your colleagues could stoop to this! However, you mustered all the courage

that was left and went to face another trustee.

“Well, I’ve just made up my mind to have nothing to do with it,” said Mr. Derwent when you interviewed him. “The way they’re actin’.”

“Why is Miss Bonar leaving?” you asked.

“Well, Miss Bonar has always given satisfaction as far as we knew. She boarded here with us, you know. But this young Warden, he slipped around to Mackay, the secretary, an’ offered to do it for two hundred and fifty and pay the janitor. Then Mackay comes to Miss Bonar and tells her she must come down to Warden’s figures or resign. Well, she thought about it, an’ she just told them if they didn’t think any more of her than that, after the way she’d worked for the school, they could take Warden.”

You made some faint inquiries about the other trustee, and found that, in order to win his favor, you must come at least five dollars below Mr. Warden. I have headed this paper “Early Impressions of a Teacher’s Life.” Perhaps I might more justly have called it “Early Depressions.” For certainly you were considerably depressed on your homeward way. It did not make matters any better to be told, on your return, that the market was too full; it was the same with everything, when the market is too full the price goes down. But—are we sheep for slaughter, or swine for shipment, that our value should go up and down accordingly as there are many or few of us? But that is not the greatest evil to which our nation is exposed. Not only is the teacher sold, but also the children. There was a time, to be sure, on this continent, when human lives were sold, when the black man stepped down from the block into the hands of the highest bidder. But there is something else being sold now. Our present system reads something like this: “We, the trustees of

this school section, offer to hand over the minds and characters of all the children in the said section, to be guided and moulded by whomsoever we find to be the lowest bidder." So it happens that the little folks are handed over to the lowest bidder, the under bidder, or, in a whisper be it said, to the underminer.

Now, let us look upon the effect of this cheap system, first, upon the teacher. Young teachers have the burden of saving sufficient for their expenses at the Normal, and the tendency is to say, "Well, I can't really afford this journal or that book on child psychology or that new edition of problems in arithmetic. The result is, instead of having a bright up-to-date, go-ahead teacher, versed in all the latest ideas and methods of his profession, we have a fossil gradually getting rustier and rustier till school life is a mere mechanical routine. If doctors, dentists, authors, clergymen buy all the latest works on their profession, and keep abreast of the times in art, literature, and politics as well, why should not school teachers? Ans. Because there isn't enough in their pockets. For, certainly, no energetic teacher should consider his reading on pedagogic lines ended when he leaves the schoolroom. Secondly, I believe that most of us agree that travel is of a very decided benefit to a teacher. I have only about three-quarters of the faith in travel as an educative factor that some people have, but I have the very firmest belief in that fraction, and it is a rather tight pinch for a young teacher to think of descending the St. Lawrence or even of spending a few weeks amid the culturing and refining influences of Grimsby Park. Thirdly, does it increase our self-respect as teachers and the respect in which we are held? I do not mean that riches or poverty should have anything to do with self-respect. But in

this case the salary is a test of the community's regard for us, and lack of appreciation seldom increases self-respect. Fourthly, what has become of the old-time schoolmaster? That grey-haired hero of the past, with his firm but kindly face! The old schoolmaster! The words have some melodious charm I cannot define. But he is an obsolete character now. A ragged wife and six ragged children were too much for him, and he went into farming or merchandise, or studied law or medicine. In their stead our conventions are filled with beardless boys with most of whom teaching is a mere side issue till they can go into something else. You can't blame them either. Few men care to continue in a profession in which they *must* remain celibates, and it would be a brave girl indeed who would share the lot of a rural schoolmaster at the present rate of salaries. I know there are those who say it is not a fit profession for men. I disagree with them utterly. Haven't time to say why.

But let us turn to the other side of the question, viz., the effect of poorly paid teachers upon the agricultural communities of our nation, for that is a more important side. Look for a moment at the position of a teacher in a rural district. In many such districts the people are, almost without exception, engaged in manual labor. A girl or two may have attended a High School a couple of years (let us hope she does not consider her education finished); a minister may be stationed there, or visit the section once a week; but often you are the only abiding representative of that intellectual life that glows or dies, a spark unseen by baser eyes. How important, then, is your life as an educative factor in that section! I need not spend time stating the effect of an unappreciated, unread, untravelled teacher as the leader of their mental life. It doesn't matter much whether the teacher is an old

fogy or a young foggy. It's foggyism anyway. Just as surely as the self-respect of the teacher goes down, the nation's respect for education and intellectual life is going down with it. When we become no longer their guide but their drudge, woe unto the nation we strive to guide! But most important of all, what is the outcome to them of this Jewish system? Does it not tend to bring out all that is selfish and small and bartering? All that is money-loving? If they are so mercenary with regard to educational matters, they will be equally mercenary with regard to other things, and the children we are training amid such surroundings will grow up more mercenary still. To be sure, they will build fine houses, have fine furniture, perhaps fine school-houses. But they will not pay for the unseen things. Education and culture are too ethereal for their minds. If they must pay out money, they will pay it out for things they can see and taste and handle, not for the unseen, the everlasting things of life. They will spend five thousand dollars on a barn, but they will not spend one thousand on the education of the son who is to manage the farm, because they can't just see what they are getting back in dollars and cents for it. But, ah! Is this the nation we love—our dear Canada—drifting on this muddy stream of materialism, amid brick walls and factory smoke, instead of afloat on the broad ocean, with God's blue sky above? Instead of the land of genius and of saints, a materialistic, money-loving nation! Why, if this thing goes on for a few generations, we'll have people paying their minister with a few bags of turnips, and billeting the teacher around among the poorest of his section, because the poor soul will not have fit clothes to appear among the wealthiest of his employers.

But of what use to murmur? It is not an hour for complaint, but for

action. One of our most brilliant ministers pronounces our system of engaging teachers as "rotten." The word, if disgusting, is expressive. *It is rotten*—a mushroom! a fungus! Then, why, in this era of change and reform, don't we alter it?

There are at least two very important causes for this state of affairs. In the first place, there is an impression among many of the fathers of our country that, when they have gone to the expense of paying their daughters' board in town while they attend High School, they must make teachers of them to get back the money spent. Again, their materialism comes to the front. They do not see the use of an education unless they can make something by it. Culture is a myth to them. Of course, there are many cases where people are too poor to afford an education without doing something afterward to replace the expense. But why must they teach? There are countless other occupations. Why, for example, should a young lady with a first-class certificate consider it throwing her education away to be a nurse, dressmaker, milliner, stenographer, etc.? Why should not an education fit one all the better for such spheres? What we need is better educated tradespeople. Why, then, should this one profession be tumbled full of a lot of people, many of whom are no more adapted for the guiding and training of children than so many kittens, but who have got there simply because they have gone through a course of High School study? Then there is a cry of too many teachers—a woefully false cry! There are not too many, but too few. Too few earnest, enthusiastic men and women thoroughly in love with their profession. The real fact is, anybody can be what we call a teacher if they have an education. Our county Model School is a place of universal salvation. There were fifteen plucked last year, to be sure, but it was only

nominal. Practically none were, since a permit of one year was granted the unfortunates. All were found to be adapted and fit to belong to our ranks. Now, it is not going to improve matters to give harder examinations in the High Schools. That discourages the youth who are preparing for other professions as well. Besides, success at such examinations is not a good test of our ability to govern a school. It is the Model School that should be the testing place, that should let us know once and for all whether we have the patience, the perseverance, the insight, the indomitable energy, etc., that make a successful teacher. Our term in the training school should undoubtedly be at least twice its present length. The examinations should be more practical and more severe, and people of eighteen ought not to be entrusted with schools. They are too young.

Again, as far as salaries are to be discussed, why should not the Government settle the amount to be paid by each section, and forbid them to depart therefrom under penalty of law? I believe it settles the salaries of its customs officers, its postmasters, etc. Why not settle the salaries of those who are training the Parliament of the twentieth century, and thus do away with all this underbidding and undermining, which is enough to bring a blush to the face of any teacher? We do not ask an unjustly high salary. But we at least deserve justice; and we are not getting it when salaries go down to one hundred and seventy five dollars

per annum, as they have in some sections. We claim to be governed by the people through their representatives in Parliament. What's the matter with us, then? Are we not part of the people? Why, then, don't we regulate this through our representatives? If the teachers of Canada were to vote as a body for the fixing of their salaries by the Government, would our Minister turn a deaf ear, I wonder? Why not act now and forward our resolution at once?

But I have already infringed too far upon your time in presenting what is by no means my loftiest impression of pedagogic life. To sum up my impressions of such a life, I would say it is a profession in which we need the patience of Job, the courage of a hero and the endurance of a martyr. Let no one enter it who has not strength—strength of body, strength of mind, strength of soul. Let no one enter it who has not contemplated long and silently that Master of our art, the Great Teacher on the hills of Galilee. For this office of ours is a sacred one—and holy.

“A tale of strength; to suffer and be still,
With one strong purpose; though the world may change;
Content to wait the varying time, until
The soul, grown great, shall burst its narrow range,
And, from the thing I am forever free,
I rise to all that I have longed to be.”

TREMENDOUS RAINFALLS.—A recent remarkable rainfall of 31.76 inches in twenty-four hours, which occurred in northern Ceylon, leads a correspondent of *Nature* to recall other records of heavy rains. The greatest annual rainfall known occurs, it is said, in the Khasia Hills in India. It

amounts to 600 inches, or 50 feet! On one occasion $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet of rain fell in the Khasia Hills every twenty-four hours for five successive days. Gibraltar has been drenched with 33 inches of rain in 26 hours, and Genoa with 30 inches in the same length of time.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL LEAVING EXAMINATION.

ERNEST COOMBS, M.A., B. PÆD.

Prin. H. S., Richmond Hill.

THE luckless results of this year's P.S.L. examinations have fallen with decidedly adverse effect on many a rural section. No such calamity could have been anticipated. Everybody wondered when it came, and yet *it did not come* uncourted or unforetold. Of the pupils who went up for this examination only about ten per cent. were passed and many of these only barely. Such a wholesale failure of honest efforts calls for an immediate investigation. Everyone interested in our national education should be anxious to locate the cause, and, if possible, bring to justice the guilty one. But if it be discovered that ignorance on the part of some has had this melancholy issue, then every effort should be made to instruct the unknowing, that such a disaster may not have to be recorded on the pages of our history yet unmade.

We have enquired from High School teachers in all parts of the province in order to obtain data for inference. A series of questions were given, of which these are the chief : 1. What per cent. of the P.S.L. class passed at your High School? 2. In what subjects did they fail chiefly? 3. Do you notice much weakness in drawing? 4. Were they low in book-keeping? 5. How do you account for the failure (if many failed)? Almost invariably the answers have been like this : "Three passed out of twenty-four," "one passed in class of ten," "two passed in class of eighteen." "They failed in drawing and book-keeping." "Mathematics plucked ours." "The arithmetic paper was the stumbling block." "They cannot draw." "They are poor in book-keeping." "We think the rural teachers have not had a fair

chance to prepare their classes." "The P.S. teachers cannot get time to teach all these subjects as they should be taught."

Now, we confess we have not looked as closely into the results of those examinations, where the pupils were prepared in the larger Public Schools, as into such where the pupils came from the small rural schools. For in schools of this kind too much is often attempted, and time is necessarily very limited. Besides in such schools one or at most two teachers have on their hands the work of the whole school, whereas, in the larger schools, we find in the highest form only the senior fourth and the fifth classes, and in some cases even the fifth alone. We cannot, therefore, find any fault with such an arrangement because, when it was made, due consideration was given to the fact that *time* is a very necessary element for the accurate working of the educational machine. But in many rural districts this principle, although really a fundamental one in pedagogy, is completely lost sight of in the calculation of ways and means for bringing the young mind into the marvellous light of wisdom's ways. And we are going to show that possibly the inveterate and hideous old habit of cramming had something to do with the sad calamity which has this year overtaken nearly ninety per cent. of our most promising Public School pupils. If such a conclusion can be logically reached, the educationists of Ontario cannot be too active in asserting the maintenance of true pedagogical laws in all our rural schools.

The damage done by such a wholesale "plucking" of honest pupils can

not be confined to one class of our people, nor will its effects be past in a day. In communities where ignorance of education's laws exists, the first and only measure of a Public School teacher's ability is the number of pupils he passes at the Entrance and P.S.L. examinations. If he is not as great as his neighbor in this respect complaints are soon heard, and not infrequently these complaints reach the teacher's ears, and this only serves as a stimulus for him to "cram" all the harder next year, and who shall say where it will end, and this is only one evil. The next is the effect on the pupils themselves. Failure seldom does an honest pupil good. Perhaps we may say never. It is useless for any one to argue otherwise. We have never heard of a teacher advising unlikely pupils to go up for examination. But this would be his proper course if he believed failure would benefit them, so we are going to make the assertion that no one believes a failure does good to an honest pupil. And failure is certainly not an indifferent thing. Therefore it must be harmful. Possibly no one will think of denying this. And, this being admitted, who can estimate the loss to our country's manhood and womanhood by the blighting of so many bright hopes and honest efforts. In what currency can such a misfortune be calculated? Many life purposes will necessarily be changed. Likely most will be blunted. How difficult a thing it will be to get these disappointed hundreds to vigorously prosecute their school work this year!

It seems the P.S.L. examination has long been misunderstood in rural sections. It is exactly what its name implies—an examination for pupils leaving Public School who do not intend to go to High School. Methinks the name has had a grim interpretation this year, as many will doubtless *leave* Public School although the examination has not been passed. Now, wisely

enough, the Departmental regulations have given this examination an Entrance qualification. It will admit to a High School. And in this very provision many a rural pupil has taken refuge. There are no fees at Public School, and so he continues there a year or more after passing the Entrance, to the very decided detriment of all beneath him. The careful and obliging teacher faces his task. His position depends only too much on obliging the parents of his section. He finds himself alone (or perhaps with one assistant) to prepare an Entrance and a P.S.L. class and teach about eight or ten other classes in the lower forms. He finds it necessary to begin operations at eight o'clock, and, having been satisfied with half an hour at noon, he sees the "level sun" as he leaves the school on the winter evening. He devotes, perhaps, two hours extra to his school work each day, and then, when the last lesson has been taught, and the year has rolled round, and the examination has been written, if his pupils have not achieved success, the heartsick drudge of a teacher, instead of receiving from the parents a "Well done, good and faithful servant," too often hears, "Depart from me, and look for another school, or take \$50 less next year."

This state of affairs has surely reached the climax now. Cutting off the Primary certificate is bound soon to make teachers less numerous. Then, this year's results have opened the eyes of many to facts they did not formerly know. A vigorous protest from all true educationists would surely do much to educate trustees in what is a reasonable amount of work for a teacher in a rural school. It is surely time to call a halt of this wretched farce. The profession should speak out and declare itself against cramming for Entrance and P.S.L. It is folly to hope that one teacher can properly prepare both classes in one year and do justice

to the rest of his school. Trustees should step in and object to parents thrusting back on the small schools those children who have passed the Entrance in every case where such a course will endanger the Entrance and lower classes. The interested teachers should themselves present the matter in a reasonable light and should not jeopardize the interests of so many because the school can get a special grant for every P.S.L. candidate passed.

In our own district we have noticed still another feature in which we are not likely to be unique. Such straining of efforts has brought the pupils only to a very moderate position at best. Few pass their examinations well. The result in most cases is a bare pass. This is very bad and is a misfortune usually underrated. A pupil who makes a poor pass sees only a low plane of excellence. His ideals are not high. His aims do not soar. He is far below a pupil who passes well, and thus learns the pleasure of doing well. The latter is much more apt to do well in all his other efforts than the one who has only the low aim.

My argument, therefore, is that we should not be satisfied with merely passing our pupils, but we should pass them well. The certificate is not the goal. Excellent standing is. We should place high ideals before our classes. This is education. We should, accordingly, cry down all attempt to lower the standard of work done in our Public Schools. These schools should only attempt as much as they can do *well*. It is of vital importance that this point be observed. The welfare and very existence of our race depends on this principle. Much depends on the teacher. In conclusion, we should be glad to know that in every district the local paper is made a medium through which the High School might keep in touch with the Public School. A unity of interest could thus be preserved, and much might be done for general education. By this means rural trustees and parents could easily be shown that, in schools with not more than two teachers, both Entrance and P.S.L. work cannot, with wisdom, be attempted.

LIFE.

BY THE REV. PREBENDARY HARRY JONES, M.A.

ACCORDING to Scripture, in the beginning God created the heaven and the earth, and every living creature that moveth. But we know no more of life than he of old who said, "It is a vapour that appeareth for a little time and then vanisheth away." Wise men, armed with microscope and telescope, travel, peering back, looking up and down, and try to find, in their own way, what it is and how it began. But the wisest are stopped at last. They are left to face an unseen Almighty Power, the Author of every living thing, great

and small. The name of such a countless creation is Infinite, and we stand ignorant before this mighty herd. Nevertheless above it rises man, having a peculiar relationship to the Maker who gave him dominion over all the earth and its manifold inhabitants. We Christians have learnt Him to be, in a sense shared by no other, "Our Father which art in heaven," in the knowledge or knowing of whom standeth our eternal life.

But along with this greatest mystery of all there are some things common to the highest and lowest of His

creatures here. Their bodies alike return to the earth of which they are made, and share the heat of the sun without which mortal life is inconceivable.

And yet neither of these great powers give us life. They only support it for a while, one by light and warmth, the other by material products, till we die. Thus between them, successive generations, animate and inanimate, appear and retire. The bud is unfolded in the summer air, and then the leaf falls to feed the hidden root of the trunk whose twig has brought its yearly food of sap. The long-grown forest-tree bows to the clay upon which it has looked proudly for a thousand years, and from which it rose, only to lie down at last. So with all moving creatures upon the earth which claims the warm-blooded eagle floating in the sunlit air, and the cold worm creeping in the soil.

And it is appointed unto man to die. "Dust thou art," says the Almighty Voice, "and unto dust shalt thou return." Nevertheless, though he shares the passing life of animate creation he claims part in that which is eternal, according to the vital sentence, "in the image of God made He man." He holds fast to this. His soul is kin to his Creator, though he leaves others to do their will with the familiar house in which it has lived since he was born. Thus the mourner is met by the words, "Forasmuch as it hath pleased God of His great mercy to take unto Himself the soul of our dear brother here departed, we therefore commit his body to the ground, earth to earth, ashes to ashes, dust to dust."

But though the believer is assured that there is a spiritual body which he will receive in exchange for that of our humiliation (mis-rendered "vile"), there are incessant signs of his passage through the mortal life which he shares with others, and which he does

not always interpret as he might and should. They tell him of the subtle process always going on in our earthly house of this tabernacle which shall be dissolved, whatever care we take of it, for however long the physician may stretch the span of our days and put back the clock of dissolution. And, without any sinking of heart, it is possible for a man to note the significant tokens of his mortality. As I have said, we are here subject to the earth and sun, which attract and revive us, however wisely or unwisely we use the material sustenance of the one or admit the mysterious operation of the other. We are in the presence of Him to whom all things are naked and open. And Nature is His sentinel, to whom darkness and light are both alike. She knows no rest or sleep, but ever waits by night and day to draw us to the ground. She watches the drowsy eyelid till it droops, and then gently lays its wearied owner down. She never takes her hand off us whom she owns, but, though its pressure may be long unfelt, she leaps upon the lightest-footed body if it should slip, and throws it to expectant earth, which, however often balked, knows that a day will come when its final claim is due.

So with the other power which suns us directly from above ; or from below through blazing logs upon the hearth which shed back flame imbibed from on high before the axe laid them on the ground, or through light and heat stored in coal once fed with vital shine upon primeval trees. For a little while it warms the moving dust of which a man is made, till he is left as stiff and cold as the clay in which he is laid at last. There is not a waking hour without some perceivable token of the powers which attend and support our present life. We may not feel them unless when we are tired or chilled, but every now and then their touch is felt, and maybe a flash of

thought whispers what they mean to do when the pulse has stopped.

So far much is plain. We are daily dealing with what we can touch and taste. And it is unwise to resent the lessons which it sets. We need not, indeed, nurse a melancholy mind by counting the steps which lead to dissolution, for though death comes to all in time we are moved by God to drag its wheels. He is the Saviour of the body and has honored it by the Incarnation of Himself. And He has permitted the great teacher, "Pain", to warn us against that misuse of life which cuts it short. But we do not believe in annihilation—nothing is destructible, however changed. And thus, though now we know not what another life may be, our chief aim in the conduct of this should be to lead it so that we may not fear to die. A man may follow the best-known rules of health till then, but the most constant and successful sanitary caution is but a short ignoble thing. He has to reckon with the Spirit, and this is found through Christ, who saw beneath the letter which killeth—*i.e.*, not below mere words alone, but under all such outer signs of life as mark our course and point to mortal death. And true communion with Him who suffered that He might bring us to God cannot be severed from that keeping of His commandment which follows, but does not create it. And what are they? No dry catalogue of regulations possible of observance by a pedant in Christianity, but laws of life. And the greatest of them, that by Himself called "new," is "Love," the spiritual power which never faileth, leading us onwards into another world where those powers which rule the natural body cease to operate, where no sun warms us nor are we claimed by a hungry watchful earth. But love is the secret of immortality, which is no period measurable by the calendar and clock, but is sent to vitalize us even

here, while we are subject to those conditions of mortality which depress or shed only a fading cheer. The law of charity or love alone rules the rise into another life, and casteth out fear, especially that of death.

Love, indeed, has been interpreted in manifold ways: as covering a multitude of sins with sweeping good-natured ignorance of what they may be, or it is limited, as that which for a while protects helpless offspring with intensity of concern. This is shown by a hen that gathers her chickens under her wings. Yet this love begins to fade as her young approach full growth, and finally evaporates when they have reached the cares of parentage themselves. Love is, however, chiefly and popularly apprehended in that which culminates in marriage. But this "mortal" affinity is assumed, in accordance with the language of our Church, to expire when a man or his mate is laid in the grave. Each promises love to the other "till death do us part." And yet we say that "holy" matrimony signifies the mystical union that is between Christ and His Church, which is undying, and He Himself said, when pressed by questions about material relationships between man and wife, that (though realized by "the children of this world") such as were accounted worthy to obtain the resurrection from the dead neither married nor were given in marriage. This might help us to apprehend the love that rules another life, and is the haven of all that works here, for it excludes the tangible, and knows no tie of "flesh and blood"—which "cannot inherit the kingdom of heaven." It is seen in that mingling of spirits which know no divorcing coolness, inasmuch as it can exist only in communion with Him who is the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever. It has its growing forecast and flashes of reality in that understanding between souls, which sanctifies all human

relationships, though these are sometimes shadowed here by passing clouds of ignorance. In this love is the secret of that vitality which is subject to no such influences as affect the flesh-made body. It ripens, grows to full stature and operation in the loving of God—*i.e.*, in such apprehension of His power who ordereth all things in heaven and earth as makes us look for ultimate satisfaction in nothing which we can touch, taste, or handle. This perfect

love quickens us here. It carries us over the borders of mortality, casting out the fear of death or of that which is felt in drinking some mysterious cup of sorrow. There can be no greater love than such acceptance of divine law as we adore with supreme devotion in Him whose last words in doing the will of God were, "Father, into Thy hands I commend my spirit."

—*Good Words*, Sept., 1898.

THE GENESIS OF GEOMETRY IN THE RACE, AND THE EDUCATION OF THE INDIVIDUAL.

BY BENCHARA BRANFORD.

MANY years have passed since Herbert Spencer, in his work on "Education," made vigorous application of the doctrine—previously formulated by Condillac, Comte, and possibly others; foreshadowed dimly, too, by Plato—that "the education of the child must accord, both in mode and arrangement, with the education of mankind, considered historically. In other words the genesis of knowledge in the individual must follow the same course as the genesis of knowledge in the race." As regards the *form* in which this doctrine is stated, no great acumen is needed to see that, in the use of the word "must," there appears to be a confusion between the possibility or advisability of the parallelism and its necessity: the doctrine, as thus enunciated, clearly cannot rank as a principle; its *role* is rather suggestive. How far the education of the child necessarily follows that of the race, and to what degree, assuming a tendency to the parallelism, it is advisable to modify or even to counteract such a tendency, these are questions suggested, but not answered, by the formula. So far as I am aware, few serious attempts have

been made to indicate, with any precision, the germs of truth concealed in the doctrine when liberally interpreted. Turning for guidance to biological science, we find a precisely similar doctrine applied to the physiological aspect of man; but here we are carefully cautioned to interpret the theory very widely. Thus we are told that an organism may take "short-cuts" in its development along ancestral lines; the suggestiveness of this to educational science is obvious. Fenced in with provisos of this kind, the theory appears to be firmly established from a biological standpoint. But the moment we take it from its real birthplace—biology—and inquire as to its application to the *mental* evolution of the child and of the race, we are at once confronted by our extreme ignorance of facts by which to test its validity. What do we know of the human embryo, of ancestral life, *qua* mental? There appear but the merest shreds of knowledge concerning either party between which a parallelism is to be established. Nor does our ignorance stop even here. What scientific knowledge have we of the mental development even of the infant, and to

what scene in the evolutionary mental drama of ancestral life does infant life correspond? The mere statement of such questions suffices to show that no application to infant education, and still less to the education of the embryo (I use the term "education" as implying any deliberate attempt to influence the growth of an organism), can at present be made of any such doctrine of parallelism of mental development between child and race, even were such a doctrine known independently to be true.

But, although observation and experiment have, as yet, supplied altogether insufficient data for trustworthy induction regarding so early a period of the human life, valuable conclusions may, I believe, be drawn respecting mental development during later years, which, while in no wise based on the validity of the parallelism in question, have been inspired by this analogy, and themselves in turn contribute independent support to its truth, while simultaneously indicating certain limitations to which it is subject. My inquiries have been directed to the bearings upon the education of the individual *qua* mathematical, of the genesis of geometrical science by the race. My aim is to exhibit a parallelism between the actual mode of evolution of geometrical knowledge in the race, from the earliest times at which we have authentic historical information, and that by which the school youth can most readily and efficiently assimilate this experience. It is to be specially remarked that I make no attempts to prove—what, indeed, I hold to be obviously incapable of proof—the existence of a necessary parallelism between the racial and individual development of geometrical knowledge. Nor am I here concerned with the very interesting question of the almost automatic genesis of space-perceptions in the first years of infancy. What I hope to do is something quite different,

viz., to show that, for educational purposes, the most effective presentation of geometry to youth, both as regards matter and spirit, is that which, in main outlines, follows the order of the historical evolution of the science.

A brief outline is desirable of the order in which I propose to deal with the inquiry. First, I epitomize (with such fulness of detail as I deem necessary for the avoidance of possible misunderstanding in the use of philosophical terms) the history of geometry from its existence as an empirical art amongst the Egyptians to its final development as a science by the Greeks, with definitions, axioms, theorems, and all the logical paraphernalia incident to a perfect science. The first part of the inquiry will be dealt with from two points of view—the order of development of the *matter* of geometrical knowledge, and, of equal importance, the *spirit* in which, at each stage, it was cultivated. In conclusion, I briefly appeal to modern educational experience to establish the doctrine I advocated above.

The earliest authentic knowledge we have of the state of geometrical knowledge before the Greeks applied their subtle intellects to its advancement is obtained from an ancient Egyptian papyrus, known as the Rhind Collection, in the British Museum, which has been deciphered only within the present generation. The date of this MS. has been variously estimated from 1700 to 1100 B.C. It is thought to be an epitome of all the mathematical knowledge at that time possessed by the Egyptians, in the persons of their priests. What kind of knowledge was this? Simply a set of *empirically discovered rules*.

It is necessary in these inquiries, where a clear mutual understanding of terms is of the first importance, to be quite definite, a result only to be obtained by a sufficiency of detail. What, then, precisely do I mean here

by the phrase "empirically discovered rules"? Suppose we have a rectangular surface before us—a room, a field, a figure on the blackboard—and I wish to know the magnitude of its surface.

There are but two ways of procedure—for our present purpose—and these differ *in toto*. I propose to consider one of them.

It is clear we must have a certain surface (called a unit) with whose magnitude we are familiar—itsself also rectangular. I now take this unit and find, by actual trial, how many times I can lay it down on the given rectangular surface, each time in a quite new position, before I have used up all the space included within the boundary. Then, neglecting certain obvious considerations foreign to the purposes of the illustration, if it appears that the original surface does not contain the measuring unit an exact number of times, I may either neglect the piece over as inconsiderate, or I may select another and smaller unit with which to again make a similar series of measurements. Thus, by repeated use of smaller and smaller units, I at length arrive at one whose magnitude is so small that I cannot well make use of a smaller. There now appears to me to be no piece at all neglected. I call the measurement exact. But is it so? Certainly not; it is now correct to say, not that I have measured exactly, but that I have reached the limit of my measuring powers. The exactness is only relative, for I have merely to employ an individual with keener eyesight and more delicately manipulative capacity to obtain what *he* would doubtless, in his turn, call an exact measurement; and yet, though certainly more exact than mine, it is still clearly only a relative exactness. A little reflection, indeed, will convince one that there is no end to such an inquiry; no surface, concrete and actual, admits of absolutely exact measurement. Why not? Because, amongst other equally im-

portant reasons, we cannot define, with absolute precision, what we mean even by the *boundary* of such a surface. The very attempt lands us in a discussion of the subtlest problems of philosophy. Every succeeding generation of scientists, with deeper knowledge and better instruments, would improve on the measurement of its predecessors. From this aspect civilization appears as a function of the place of the decimal point. There is no finality.

Such measurements, then, as above described let us call experimental or empirical. Now observe that the measurement obtained with so much trouble applies only to this particular rectangular surface; *it gives no information about other rectangular surfaces*. Further, let us suppose that repeated measurements, by this very obvious method, of all sorts of rectangular areas, have been thus experimentally made, and the results tabulated. In addition, let the measurements of the *sides* of these rectangles be obtained in similar direct manner (by use of units of length)—whatever may be the purpose of such—and let these results chance to be tabulated alongside the others. [We presume total ignorance of geometrical *science* on the part of our practical geometricians.] Finally, let us imagine some observant individual amongst them discovering, either by chance or with intentional quest, that, if he multiplies together the numbers giving the measures of the sides, he obtains, in all the cases observed, numbers very close to those measuring the areas. [It is, perhaps, interesting to observe that the discovery of such relations would appear to be almost impossible for races whose means of computation were meagre, unless the unit of length chanced to be (as above) related in some extremely obvious way to the unit of area, as, for instance, being the side of the square which is the unit of area.] This parenthesis serves to illustrate the significance of the part

played by chance in the discovery of important facts, such as, doubtless, the above would be, in the history of a nation's mental development. It also serves to indicate the kind of stimulus that an appropriate study of empirical geometry should give to the *inventive* faculty of the child. Here, indeed, at once, we perceive a valuable educational parallelism such as we previously contemplated. We have, then, supposed the discovery of a certain relation, or law, between sides and area. The larger the number of cases tested, the stronger would be the belief in the universal applicability of the relation. But, however many be the tests, the law is still only an empirical statement; the two groups of numbers spoken of—the numbers giving respectively the area and the product of the sides—will never exhibit more than an approximate correspondence; the equality cannot, from the nature of the case, be absolutely exact. However valuable in future use the discovery may be, it is not a logically proved geometrical theorem, but a wide empirical induction. It ranks as a fact of experimental geometry, but forms no part of a scientific geometry. The relation might be discovered—and, indeed, appears to have been discovered—by one unversed in such abstractions as straight line, axiom, theorem, etc.

By way of sharp contrast, let the same problem of measuring a certain rectangular surface be now proposed to a man who grasps the spirit of a scientific geometry. He is aware that, from certain arbitrarily formed definitions (of straight lines, parallels, etc.)—which, observe, are creations of the intellect worked up from sense-data, mere conceptions of the understanding—he cannot deductively prove from the definition of the abstract geometrical figure, termed a rectangle, that its area can be got by multiplying together the numbers measuring the lengths of

its sides, provided they have a common measure, while, if they have not a common measure, a product can be obtained giving the result to any degree of precision required. Observe that incommensurability is not a property of objectively existent lines; it can logically be proved of, and therefore applied to, only ideal geometrical creations. Hence the glory of the Pythagorean school of mathematics—the creation of the theory of incommensurable magnitudes.

So far all is pure theory; the corresponding geometrical figures exist only in the imagination, as ideas of the man's mind; they are simply conceptions. In applying these to concrete, visible surfaces, our geometrician foresees that the so-called sides of the objectively existent rectangle he wishes to measure cannot possibly be more than rough approximations to his ideally defined straight lines (*e.g.*, they must have breadth, or he could not see them); that the surface of the rectangle, that the angles, etc., are but rough copies of his geometrical plane surface, right angles, etc. But, although this is so, such facts simply serve to exhibit the excellence of his ideal geometry for purposes of application to the concrete; since, however closely approaching straightness lines may be actually drawn, and however nearly plane surfaces may be actually made on matter, the geometrical theorems, being based on lines defined by man's own creative thought as perfectly straight, and on plane surfaces that are similarly defined as perfectly plane, etc., are thereby efficient to cope with any kind of physical measurement, however precise it may become. Indeed, the absolute precision of geometrical science ever offers an ideal towards which actual physical measurement may strive, but which it can, obviously, never reach, though ever approaching nearer. In this aspect geometry has analogy with moral law,

which has neither greater nor less cogency and application to human life than geometrical theorems to the material world. In the language of the mathematician, physical measurement and geometrical are mutually asymptotic.

This distinction, which is of importance for our purpose, and frequently misapprehended, may become still clearer if we reflect what could have been the progress of physical science—in which advance appears, from one aspect, to lie ultimately in the possibility of measuring to extra decimal places (note the discovery of argon)—had geometry remained empirical. Imagine a stone geometry, in which deductions are made in terms of such points, lines, and surfaces as can be obtained on stone, with the aid of stone. How could such a geometry cope with the niceties of measurements flowing from the use of steel instruments on steel surfaces? Clearly we should need to reconstruct and refine our geometry incessantly, as instruments become more precise and muscles more adaptable. Stone geometry would succeed wooden, steel geometry stone, and soon we might be floundering in the difficulties of a celuloid geometry.

All this may appear trivial, but, in view of notorious historical misapprehension of the basis of scientific geometry, the grotesque misapplication of Euclid to elementary education, and the vagueness evinced by even well-educated people concerning the nature of geometrical truth, I believe such illustrations have their use. Moreover, it is high time that teachers turned their attention to the history and philosophy of the subject they teach.

To return to the measurement of the rectangular surface, our scientific geometrician has, we suppose, logically deduced from his conceptions of straight lines and rectangles a formula for obtaining the area of any rectangle

whatsoever—*i.e.*, a rectangle in his ideal sense of the word. Then, with the utmost precision of which he is capable, he measures the lengths of two adjacent sides of the given material rectangular surface, and, according to his formula, multiplies together these numbers, thus obtaining, in units of area, the magnitude of the given rectangle. As far as his measuring precision is reliable, so far can he trust his result; the applicability and validity of his abstract formula he never dreams of questioning—and rightly.

Observe the difference between the two methods of procedure. In the first (the practical geometrician's method), we start with direct, particular sense-perception and experiment, and end with a wide empirical induction, based on repeated rough measurements; in the other the process starts with a general scientific conception (formula based on rigorous reasoning from definitions, etc.), and we end in getting, through its aid, a particular experimental result. One process leads to an experimental or empirical geometry; the other proceeds from a scientific geometry. One deals with particular facts; the other with general theorems.

I have stated above that the earliest documents—the Egyptian Rhind Papyrus—respecting the geometrical knowledge of the ancients consist of the statement of the results of particular measurements, or at most of empirically discovered rules. "The papyrus contains," says Allman ("Greek Geometry from Thales to Euclid") "a complete applied mathematics, in which the measurement of figures and solids plays the principal part; there are no theorems properly so called; everything is stated in the form of problems, not in general terms, but in distinct numbers—*e.g.*, to measure a rectangle, the sides of which contain two and ten units of length; to find the surface of a circular area whose

diameter is six units ; to mark out in a field a right-angled triangle whose sides measure ten and four units. . . . We find also in it indications for the measurements of solids, particularly of pyramids, whole and truncated. It appears from the above that the Egyptians had made great progress in practical geometry." As witnessing to the very empirical state of geometry as it existed among the Jews, Babylonians, etc., it is to be noted that they appear to have thought that the circumference of a circle is just three times the length of its diameter. Thus we read that Hiram made for Solomon "a molten sea, ten cubits from the one brim to the other ; it was round all about . . . and a line of thirty cubits did compass it round about." (1 Kings vii. 23.) Even this may be too much to attribute to them ; there is always a danger of reading into statements of this kind more than was originally intended, a danger due to our own vast modern mastery of the science. Possibly Solomon's architect simply found by measurement that the circumference of this particular circle measured in length three times its diameter, without being aware of the general empirical truth that the circumference of every concretely drawn circle bears a fairly fixed ratio to its diameter, much less of the scientific theorem that for all abstractly defined circles this ratio is absolutely fixed (and incommensurable). Incidentally here remark that, unless the idea of a possible numerical dependence of circumference on diameter (or *vice versa*)—the notion, in fact, of a mathematical function—already exists or is suggested by analogy from other experience, there is nothing to urge the mind towards a search for the *precise* measure of this dependence. Here, as elsewhere, we see only what we look for, over and above that which is obvious to all. Now this idea that, in some *definite* way, the two lengths are

numerically related appears to have been born with difficulty. Nor, indeed, is the notion of a mutual numerical dependence common even among modern well-educated people. Many are those who know, and can mechanically apply, the fact that 1,728 cubic inches make one cubic foot, and yet are unaware what dependence this large number has on the fact that twelve inches make one foot. A specific education fails in its due effect in such cases as these, where the bare particular fact is remembered by rote, while the valuable part of the matter (here, the idea of a function) is never assimilated. Such fundamental defects largely characterize elementary education. Egyptian geometry, then, the predecessor of Greek geometrical science, appears to have been practical, approximate, inductive, not scientific, deductive, exact ; in one word, it was *empirical*.

I pass on to Greek geometry. Dr. Allman (in the work above cited) has indicated the precise relation in which Greek geometers stood to their Egyptian predecessors, a relation which appears to have been often misunderstood. It is probable that the influence of J. S. Mill's fallacious treatment of mathematical ideas in his great work on "Logic" is answerable for many of the fallacies and mistakes perpetrated by modern mathematicians in connection with the philosophical basis of their science ; especially is this so in the case of geometry. His constant confusion between *conceptual* thought, which deliberately frames definitions as a basis of deductive reasoning, and *perception*, which is of external objects ; between conceiving, as the result of self-consistent thought, and the quite different conceiving that we call visual imagination ; between the possible in concrete experience and the possible in thought, all lead to the most startling paradoxes. If Kant's famous dictum that "the understand-

ing makes nature" overstates the truth, as is now generally, I believe, admitted, yet it implies a true aspect of the relation between mind and nature that Mill appears to me to have here entirely overlooked. If the Kantian idealists are wrong in stating that the idea of space is antecedent to the experience of the senses, and that the geometrical axioms are pure creations of the intellect, Mill and the empirical school have but gone to the other extreme of error in attempting to derive these axioms from purely sensuous experience by processes of induction, thus transforming geometry into an empirical science. Stallo ("Concepts of Modern Physics") has clearly stated what appear to be the truer bearings of the case: "All the geometrical axioms which serve as starting points of deduction contain two elements—an element of intuition (as a part of sensation); and an element of arbitrary intellectual determination, which is called *definition*. The facts of extension and its limits—surfaces, lines, and points—are given in intuition; without sensible experience we should not know anything about geometrical solids, surfaces, lines, and points; but *nothing is deducible from the existence of these elements, or our intuition of them, until they are defined*." "Every axiom which is geometrically futile involves a definition."

To the same purpose speaks Poincaré: "If geometry were an experimental science, it would not be an exact science—it would be liable to a continual revision. . . . *Geometrical axioms are neither synthetic a priori conclusions nor experimental facts*. They are *conventions*; our choice, amongst all possible conventions, is *guided* by experimental facts; but it remains *free*, and is only limited by the necessity of avoiding all contradiction. It is thus that the postulates can remain rigorously true, even when the experimental laws that have deter-

mined their adoption are only approximate. In other words, *axioms of geometry* (I do not speak of those of arithmetic) are only definitions in disguise."

Had Mill been acquainted with modern researches on what has been termed "transcendental geometry" (due to the labors of Lobatschewsky, Bolyai, Riemann, Helmholtz, and others), doubtless his position would have been radically modified. Possibly even a familiarity with the comparatively simple idea of incommensurable magnitudes would have stood him in good stead. I lay stress on these matters as they are so helpful to gaining true insight into the true educational function of geometry. The mixed basis of geometry—partly sense-data, partly creative thought—clearly indicates use for and training of both *hand* and *thought* in geometrical education. Philosophy has long been dissociated from the teaching of mathematics, to the great detriment, I am convinced, of the latter. Education is sure to suffer in the hands of a teacher who is not familiar with the philosophy of his subject. This brief epitome is by no means inserted to inform—philosophy cannot thus be digested in compressed tabloids—but simply to draw attention to the expediency of inspiring a love of philosophical thought in the minds of teachers. The philosophic mind is specially needed in these days of educational maxims, when the teacher is on one side advised to apply the valuable maxim: "Learn by doing"; on another side, to rely on the equally valuable maxim: "Do by learning." Only the teacher with philosophic breadth of view can reconcile these two half-truths into an applicable unity of method, wherein, if doing is precedent to learning at one moment, in the next as assuredly is learning precedent to doing, education being the deliberate attempt to meth-odize an incessant action and reaction between these two.

A clearer understanding of the basis of geometry prepares us to appreciate the advance in geometrical knowledge due to Greek intellect. "The first name," says Allman, "which meets us in the history of Greek mathematics is that of Thales of Miletus (640-536 B.C.) . . . Thales himself was engaged in trade, is said to have resided in Egypt, and, on his return to Miletus in his old age, to have brought with him from that country the knowledge of geometry and astronomy. To the knowledge thus introduced he added the capital creation of the geometry of lines, which was essentially abstract in its character. The only geometry known to the Egyptian priests was that of surfaces, together with a sketch of that of solids . . . obtained empirically; Thales, on the other hand, introduced *abstract* geometry, the object of which is to establish precise *relations* between the different parts of a figure, so that some of them could be found by means of others in a manner strictly rigorous. This was a phenomenon quite new in the world, and due, in fact, to the abstract spirit of the Greeks."

"In connection with the new impulse given to geometry, there arose with Thales, moreover, scientific astronomy, also an abstract science, and undoubtedly a Greek creation. The astronomy of the Greeks differs from that of the Orientals in this respect—that the astronomy of the latter, which is altogether concrete and empirical, consisted merely in determining the duration of some periods, or in indicating, by means of a mechanical process, the motion of the sun and planets; whilst the astronomy of the Greeks aimed at the discovery of the geometric laws of the motions of the heavenly bodies." Thales "measured the Pyramids, making an observation on our shadows when they are of the same length as ourselves, and applying it to the Pyramids. . . . Thales meas-

ured the distance of vessels from the shore by a geometric process." Note these applications to the concrete. Again, we are told by the historian Eudemus that he attempted "some things in a more abstract manner, and some in a more intuitional or sensible manner." Thus it is clear that he would continue to employ empirical measurements to obtain approximate results, which, by the creation of definitions and the use of axioms, he would gradually replace by strictly scientific theorems. Allman attributes to Thales the discovery of the two theorems—(a) The sum of the three angles of a triangle is equal to two right angles; (b) The sides of equiangular triangles are proportional. (Hence the basis of the theory of *similar* figures.) Thus, from a philosophic point of view, says Allman, "we see in these two theorems of Thales the first type of a *natural law*—i.e., the expression of a fixed dependence between different quantities, or, in another form, the disentanglement of constancy in the midst of variety—has decisively risen"; whilst, from a practical point of view, "Thales furnished the first example of an application of theoretical geometry to practice, and laid the foundation of an important branch of the same—the measurement of heights and distances." After Thales comes the contribution of the Pythagorean school. "Pythagoras changed geometry into the form of a liberal science, regarding its principles in a purely abstract manner, and investigated his theorems from the immaterial and intellectual point of view." He was the first person who introduced weights and measures among the Greeks. The geometry of areas plays an important part in the work of this school (e.g., Euclid I. 47), thus exhibiting the mode of evolution from its Egyptian empirical source. Again, "the Pythagoreans first severed geometry from the needs of practical life, and treated it as a liberal science, giv-

ing definitions, and introducing the manner of proof which has ever since been in use." Let us carefully remember that "one chief characteristic of the mathematical work of Pythagoras was the combination of arithmetic with geometry," culminating in the theory of proportion. "In this respect he is fully comparable to Descartes, to whom we owe the decisive combination of algebra with geometry." Allman says of this unifying aspect of his work: "We are plainly in presence of, not merely a great mathematician, but of a great philosopher. It has ever been so; the greatest steps in the development of mathematics have been made by philosophers."

Of equal importance with the question of the historical order of development of the *matter* of geometrical knowledge is a consideration of the attitude of mind of the ancients towards the subject, the spirit in which at different times they cultivated geometry, as art or science or both. First we find the Egyptians employing a crude empirical geometry for architecture and land-surveying, rendered necessary by the obliteration of landmarks caused by Nile floods. These approximate rules of thumb come to the knowledge of a people of higher intellectual calibre—the Greeks. Hence there gradually emerges the vague conception of the possibility of a *science* of geometry, in which clear, abstract definitions shall refine on mere sense-perceptions, axioms peculiar to geometry combine with axioms at the base of all reasoning, and thereby the empirical laws be absorbed once for all in rigorously deduced abstract theorems. Of course the emergence of all this was very gradual; *there was incessant action and reaction between the concrete and the abstract* (a fact of fundamental importance for education, remark). At length we reach a time when geometrical knowledge has assumed a perfectly abstract

form, become evolved into a science; we find it now in the hands of professional philosophers, who follow and value the study of it partly as an intellectual discipline, and partly out of scientific curiosity, but with no other motive. Plato (himself a student of geometry, though apparently not a specialist therein) appears simply to express a feeling common in his time when he denounces the application of scientific geometry to "vulgar handicraft" as demeaning to the science; and we all know the motto written over the entrance to his Academy: "Let none ignorant of geometry enter my door." To Plato and his attitude I shall presently return.

This divorce of geometrical science from the needs of common life must not be misinterpreted as a sundering of the abstract from the concrete; bearing in mind the presumed educational application of this epitome of the history of geometry, I lay great stress on the fact that, "side by side with the development of abstract geometry by the Greeks, the *practical art of geometrical drawing*, which they derived originally from the Egyptians, continued to be in use." The true significance of this must not be overlooked.

The ideal of Greek geometry may fairly be described as *construction under self-imposed definite limitations*. For example, as regards problems in a plane, from the abstract side of thought the attempt was made to solve all such by ultimate reference to the concepts, straight line and circle; from the concrete standpoint, all constructions were to be reduced to use of ruler and compasses only (the respective concrete embodiments of the ideal straight line and circle). In the former aspect geometry was entirely independent of mechanics, but in the latter dependent on it; but not for long can the two be separated without gravest danger to arrestment of the one as art and of

the other as science. Plato himself, not dreaming apparently of the possibility of the immense stimulus geometry was in future ages to receive from the needs of the mechanical art, advocated warmly the educational claims of geometry on its purely abstract side, condemning, in his prejudice, its alliance with the concrete. Despite, however, Plato's great influence, Greek geometers, wisely trusting their genius, constantly overstepped those limits which Plato and others would have imposed: we find them making experiments, constructing curves as loci of points got with ruler and compasses; and, finally, when the continuous description of certain curves demanded for the solution of problems—*e.g.*, the trisection of an angle—was seen to be impossible without an infinity of single points (out of the reach, consequently, of ruler and compasses), we find them inventing and using mechanical instruments and methods for the continuous description of these curves, precisely as a pair of compasses draws concretely a continuous circle.

In these tendencies, not to be suppressed, we recognize an affinity to the

genius of Newton—"At æquatio non est," he says, "sed descriptio quæ curvam geometricam efficit," and, in modern times, to Cayley's fondness for geometrical drawing and for the modelling of surfaces, and to Sylvester's interest in linkages. The condemnation of Plato's view and the admission of mechanical ideas to the sacred realm of mathematical science become decisive and final when we reach Lagrange, who expressly included mechanics (the concept now, of course, being infinitely wider embracing) as a branch of pure mathematics.

Plutarch tells us that the strictures of Plato had, at least, the unfortunate effect of retarding for long the development of mechanics. A precisely similar error we ourselves make in the mathematical education of our scholars. This remark suggests considerations that I cannot here develop.

Finally, we reach the foundation of the Alexandrian school of science (about 300 B.C.), where we first find in existence the full-blown professional mathematician, no longer a philosopher in the Greek sense of the word, but pursuing the science, not for culture, but for its own sake.

(To be continued.)

OUR NATIVE MAPLES.

ELLA M. POWERS.

NO trees during these early autumn days are more gorgeously attired than our native maples. Their brilliant colors of crimson, scarlet, orange and yellow are wonderfully attractive to the children, who gladly collect specimens and study their characteristics. Leaves should be collected, pressed, and mounted; also bark and twigs, the fruit, and specimens of the wood should be avail-

able to make the lessons of greater interest.

THE RED MAPLE.

One of the maples which early dons its gay autumn gown, and is the brightest of them all, is the red maple. We see its rich foliage from the damp northern forests southward to the lowlands of Florida and westward to the highlands of the Dakotas. We easily

recognize it by its reddish branches, the twigs of young trees being a bright dark red. The head of the tree is usually rounded and somewhat low.

The leaves are thick and make a dense shade, although variable in size. A close examination of the leaf shows there are three distinct divisions, sometimes five, although the lower lobes near the stem are very small. The hollows between the lobes are pointed and extend about one-third of the distance to the base of the leaf. The margin of the leaf consists of tiny saw teeth.

In August and early September the leaves are a bright deep red, and by the first of November the leaves have fallen. Often during the summer days we see a branch of brilliant scarlet among the green branches—evidently the flow of sap in that branch is arrested, an insect may have stung the stem, a worm may be gnawing at the pith, or some unseen living creature may be the cause of this brightness among the surrounding green.

The bark of the Red Maple is smooth and of a warm gray color when young, but in old trees it becomes furrowed, rough, easily cracks in scales and turns a brown color. Light gray lichens are often seen clinging to the bark of a red maple whose home is in a swamp.

The fruit of the red maple is ripe in September and is the smallest and most delicate of all maples. It is red, and found hanging in pairs from stems two or three inches long. The wings of the "keys" slightly diverge and are about one inch long.

The wood is hard and of a light color, having a reddish tint. Its grain is fine and compact and when the fibres are in wavy lines or "curled" it is highly prized, for, as the wood takes a fine polish, it is greatly valued in cabinet work.

WHITE MAPLE.

The white maple or silver maple, is a favorite shade tree, as it is most ornamental. This large, stately tree, one of the most graceful of the maples, is found from the Atlantic to the Indian Territory. Its long, slender branches spring from the trunk in an upward, rather than outward, direction at first. They spread at the top, then slightly droop.

In old trees the bark of the trunk and large limbs is rough and furrowed. The color is a dark granite gray inclining to brown. The smaller branches are smooth white, the young shoots are of a light green.

The leaves are among the most beautiful of our shade trees, the upper surface being a bright green, while the under surface is light, almost a silvery white. In these autumn days the leaves show varied colors of orange, scarlet and a purplish crimson. The leaves, on long slender stems, have five divisions, separated by sharp notches and tapering to a point. The edge is prettily and finely toothed.

In early summer the fruit ripens and now, in September, we find many a wayside dotted with the new seedling trees. The fruit is supplied with long, stiff wings, arranged in pairs and set at wide angles.

The wood is soft, white and light. It is not durable and so not highly prized.

ROCK MAPLE.

There is no grander maple than the rock maple or sugar maple tree. This grows in some localities over one hundred feet high, is erect and exceptionally symmetrical. In the region of the great lakes it attains its finest development.

Its lower branches, firm and stiff, lack the grace of the white maple's more slender branches. The bark of the young tree is an ash gray, light

colored and smooth, but when old it becomes dark, scaly, rough and deeply furrowed, and then assumes a gray brown. Greenish lichens are often seen in patches upon the trunks of old trees in the forests.

The leaf of the rock maple is easily distinguished from the others as it has no tiny saw teeth on the margin. This long stemmed leaf has five divisions, not deeply cut, and the notches between the lobes are curved. During these fall days the foliage on many of the rock maples is a clear straw yellow, on others it is a light red with orange tints. This gorgeous coloring depends upon different conditions of temperature and moisture. In old England there is no brilliant foliage to compare with that in the United States and Canada.

The fruit is of a pale yellowish green. The seed, ripening in September, is too late to grow little seedling trees the same season. The seedlings of the seed are about one inch long and are slightly curved towards each other.

The wood, of a yellowish tint, is much used in cabinet work. It is hard, compact, tough, fine grained and, as it takes a high polish, a satiny-like lustre, it is greatly valued for interior finish in buildings and for furniture. When the fibres are knotted or twisted we get the beautiful "bird's eye maple." The wood is valuable for fuel.

No tree is more attractive to children than this sugar maple, for its sap, drawn upward and compelled to fill the long rows of buckets in our groves, soon yields the longed-for maple sugar. How many children have stood before these tapped trees counting the seconds by the drops that fall! Four gallons of sap will yield about one pound of sugar. One tree often yields thirty gallons of sap. Many of these trees are tapped annually for forty years.

To be able to distinguish these three varieties, regardless of the striped maple with its downy leaves so finely pointed and its striped bark and the mountain maple with its coarsely toothed leaves and small fruit widely separated, is to awaken new interest. After studying these ask such questions as:

What seeds ripen in early summer?

What species are valued as timber?

How is the white maple distinguished from the red maple?

Which maple has the most shapely and deeply-cut leaves?

Which maple leaf is without saw-teeth margins?

Which maple bears the largest leaves?

Which maple has the smallest fruit?

Which has the brightest leaves?—
Intelligence.

BIRDS.

NO animal displays so much power and instinct in its distant excursions as the bird; these have something really prodigious in them. It is only by the aid of accurate instruments and knotty calculations that the sailor trusts himself upon the sea, whereas our winged travellers, without guide or compass, and without ever losing their way, transport themselves from

the polar circle to the tropical regions. The cranes pass the summer on the stormy sands of Scandinavia, and the winter amid the ruins of the palaces of the Pharaohs.

The mechanism of birds is admirably suited to aid their rapid flight. Their aerial oars, moved by muscles of extraordinary power, easily adapt themselves to all the hazards of their pere-

grinations through the elevated regions of air. There are animals, as the swallow, for instance, to which flight is so easy that they seem to make sport of it. A passive force further assists their suspension in the plains of the atmosphere; air, rarefied by the warmth of the body, penetrates into all its cavities and even to the interior of the bones. Rendered thus specifically lighter, like balloons filled with warm gas, they float without effort amid the clouds. Such is the daring flight of those condors which launched themselves from the frozen summits of the Andes toward the sky, and soon disappeared from the sight of M. d'Orbigny, without one's being able to explain how they could breathe so rarefied an atmosphere.

The bird, though endowed with such a slight frame, nevertheless surpasses in strength the ponderous engines which glide along our railroads. Its vessels and fibres, notwithstanding their wonderful delicacy, work and resist more energetically than our heavy wheel-work and cast-iron tubes; in the one is seen the finger of God, in the other only the genius of man! Launched like an arrow into space, the bird, playing the while, silently clears twenty leagues an hour. A locomotive going at high pressure, enveloped in fire and smoke, attains the same speed only by consuming heaps of coke and water amid the infernal uproar of its wheels and pistons.

According to Sir Hans Sloane, the sea-mews which nestle on the rocks of Barbadoes take every day a journey over the sea of one hundred and thirty leagues, to amuse themselves and seek for food on a distant island,—the industry of the animal thus excelling that of man.

The migrations of certain birds are understood; we know whence they start, where they halt, and where they end their journey. Thus, for instance, in autumn, bands of quails,

which are emigrating, constantly arrive exhausted at the island of Malta, where they meet with fatal hospitality. They are taken in swarms in the streets of the town and on the roads, and as the inhabitants cannot consume the whole of this living harvest, it is sent to distant markets. The deck of the ship in which I left the harbor was laden with them.

During one of my wanderings across the Mediterranean, some strayed swallows happened, when we were midway between the two coasts, to fall totally exhausted on the deck of the frigate which was carrying me toward Africa. Every one on board, soldiers and sailors, overwhelmed them with attentions, which they received without exhibiting signs of fear. When they had at last recovered from their fatigues, they recommenced their journey toward the high regions of Senegal, and perchance rested beneath the cabins of savages long ere we had greeted the ports of Algeria.

But after long and perilous journeys these charming visitors of our dwellings return each year with touching fidelity to find their old domicile again. If the rains and winds have injured it, the architects quickly repair it before making it witness of their loves. Spallanzani has even noticed that the feathered couples become strongly attached to their particular nests. Having fixed parti colored ribbons to the feet of some of them, he recognized them the year after, when they came to take possession again. He saw them return thus for eighteen successive summers. How many among us never enjoy such a long tenancy!

Less remarkable for the instinct which guides them than for the innumerable multitude of their army, the passenger pigeons traverse the forests of America in such compact masses that they absolutely intercept the rays of the sun, and cast a long track of

shadow on the ground. Their compact columns extend over such a space that the eye cannot take in the full extent of it. It has been calculated that it is often sixty leagues in length. The passing of these columns sometimes lasts three hours, and, as these birds travel at the rate of nearly twenty leagues an hour, their army must necessarily extend over fifty to sixty leagues of sky.

This immense host never travels by night; so soon as darkness overtakes them, they precipitate themselves breathless and exhausted upon the nearest forest, there to rest from their fatigues. Their legions accumulate in such numbers upon the trees that the great branches yield or break beneath their weight, and all the invaders are soon after composed to sleep.

The cold of winter drives most animals from the polar regions, and compels them to withdraw to countries

more favored by the sun. The penguins of the Cape alone seem to evade this universal law. These bird-fish being intrepid swimmers, are most at home in the midst of the ices or the roaring waves. They only haunt the shores of Africa in order to scoop out their nests, hatch their eggs, and rear their young. When the young have become sufficiently robust to support the fatigues of the journey, they all suddenly disappear from the African shores, and seek during six months of winter the frightful regions of the south pole, condemned to incessant struggles amid tempests and ice. But at the return of spring the penguins reappear in numerous troops, and encumber anew the banks now smiling with verdure, grouping themselves in long processions, seemingly occupied only in revelling in light and love.—*The Animal World*, D. Appleton & Co.

A NATIONAL OR CENTRAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION FOR CANADA.*

THE organization of a National or Central Bureau of Education for Canada has, I believe, become at last a practical question, and in accepting it as the topic allotted to me at this auspicious gathering of Canadian teachers, I have the feeling that were it not for the inaptitude of the speaker it cannot be other than an interesting one. And there comes an echo from the past of this same old city in which we have been privileged to hold our convention, as there comes an echoing of the present from every nook and corner of this Canada of ours, which assures me that, if the organization* of such a Bureau can be shown to be pregnant with the true interests of Canada as a community growing nationwards, there is spirit enough to be found among our public

men and their constituencies to demand that trial be made of it as a realizing practical force at the earliest moment possible. For what is there nearer to the heart of our *amour de la patrie* of the present than the hope that this country of ours may become more and more of a Canada to us,—what is there more likely to be eagerly examined by us as a consolidating people than some possibly neglected ethical force that perchance when rehabilitated will assure and perfect the consolidation? In these latter days so much is being said and written about Canada as a budding potentiality among the nations of the earth that the less poetic of us are somewhat diffident in approaching the theme. The great stretches of Canada's territory, the magnificence of her mountain scenery, the picturesque

*Paper by Dr. Harper, read at Dominion Educational Convention, Halifax, August, 1898.

grandeur of her spacious waterways and woodlands, the romantic charms of her hills and dales, and the sweet comeliness of her farmland homes, have all come to receive attention from our poets and *litterateurs*; and the story of her greatness *in esse* has become so far the foundation of the story of her greatness *in posse* that for me to expand on it here would be somewhat out of place in view of the special message I have been called to utter in your presence. And yet you will have to forgive me if I awaken, for the emphasis of my theme, that echo from the past which I have referred to as coming from this same old city of Halifax,—an echo that, as a prophecy, being fulfilled, must, I am assured, be all the more pleasant to your ears. With the thirty years' experience we have had of Confederation, it is perhaps easy enough for us to prophesy after the event, but, long before the Confederation agitation, there came to the various provinces a message uttered in words of fire by the greatest of Nova Scotian orators,—a message that has lost none of its charm as the veritable voice of fate itself, that would not be stayed, though the prophet who uttered it fought for a time against its fulfilment. From the vantage ground of his marvelous influence, old Joseph Howe was believed then, as he is credited now, when he said: "You feel at every step that Canada must become a great nation, and at every step you pray most devoutly for the descent upon the country of that wisdom and foresight and energy which shall make it the great treasury of British institutions upon this continent, and an honor to the British name. All the lakes of Scotland thrown together would not make one of these great inland seas, which form, as it were, a chain of Mediterraneans; all the rivers of England, old Father Thames included, would scarcely fill the channel

of the St. Lawrence. There is a grandeur in the mountain ranges, and a voice in the noble cataracts which elevate the spirit above the ignorance and the passions of the past and the perplexities of the present, and make us feel that the great Creator of the Universe never meant such a country to be the scene of discord, but will yet inspire the people with the union, the virtue and the true patriotism, by which alone its political and social condition shall be made to take, more nearly than it does now, the impress of its natural features. Canada is a country to be proud of; to inspire high thoughts; to cherish a love for the sublime and the beautiful; and to take its stand among the nations of the earth in spite of all circumstances which oppose the growth and progress of a young country."

And, as a further emphasis to this fulfilling prophecy, is there one of us that cannot stand at his own doorstep and feel the *amen* of it, soothing as a patriotic song? Under my own verandah, in old Quebec yonder, right on the ground where the destiny of Canada was pledged in the death of James Wolfe (for I live on the Plains of Abraham), the *amen* of such a song sounds as frequently as elsewhere from Halifax to Vancouver. There, on a summer's day, "Nature hums its olden song, and plays with history's fingers to assure the tune," in presence of the "velvet charms" of St. Charles' Plain shut in by the old Laurentides, in presence of the holm-enclosing windings of Cartier's St. Croix in front, with an unwritten song in its every ripple, and in the hearing of the hum of the crowding streets of old Stadacona to the right, with a tale to tell in each of its landmarks. There, in presence of the best that Canada has to give of scenery and history, of the present and the past, there are few that would not fain to join in the anthem:

"Hail, beauteous shrine of nature, gay
 festooned
 With woodland grandeur, where the
 fervent soul
 May drink a draught from summer's
 rippling sheen,
 That's shed like sweet ambrosial odour
 mortalized !"

Or, seeking a homelier utterance and perhaps all the sweeter, there are few who would not be willing to join in the lusty chorus :

"Though other skies may be as bright
 And other lands as fair ;
 Though charms of other climes invite
 Our wandering footsteps there ;
 Yet there is one, the peer of all,
 Beneath bright heaven's dome,
 Of thee I sing, O happy land,
 My own Canadian Home."

When the Fathers of Confederation were maturing and co-ordinating their opinions on the great question before them they had more than the opinions of the higher statesmanship to co-ordinate. There were constituencies in those days who fed themselves on the prejudices of self interest, just as there are constituencies of that nurture in all great movements, just as there may possibly be in the undertaking I have to advocate this evening. There were publicists in those days who prophesied ruin to the weaker provinces and tyranny by the stronger, just as there were those who lit up the prospect with the exaggerating light of their imagination which may have deceived and certainly bewildered thousands of voters. There were those who, in actively opposing the scheme, uttered the most lamentable wails of loss of liberty, loss of trade, increased taxation and other calamities ; while there were those who, in promoting the change, joyously proclaimed it to be the panacea of all political and commercial ills. And, as the Fathers of Confederation sought to secure their

deliberations against the overwhelming tendencies of these outer prejudices that beset them, eliminations and addenda had to be made in the constitution they had been called together to frame—at least so the wisdom that met in the old Parliament House at Quebec, in 1866, deliberated and decided. The Constitution as it left their hands was perhaps not what it ought to have been, but it was the best the times could be brought to countenance. And we of to-day, while loyally cognizant of the consolidation of interests it has produced, through the growth of the Canadian notion in our literature and statesmanship, are often compelled to ask why the Provincial notion has not by this time found its oblivion altogether in the Canadian nation. That there has been a drawing together of our interests as a consolidating people, a unifying of Provincial sympathies in a broader communal, no one can for a moment doubt. But when we turn to find, after the inductive method, the Provincial who is a Canadian first and a Provincial after, the Nova Scotian or New Brunswick trader who is more of a Canadian than a Nova Scotian, the Ontario man who does not even yet rejoice over Provincial aggrandizement and absorption, the Prince Edward Islander who does not fail at times to look upon the Manitoban or North-Western man as a kind of foreigner, we retreat from before our investigations and within the shelter of our own thoughts marvel at the phenomena of patriotism we have collected. And when I look at this assembly of teachers drawn, in theory at least, from all parts of our wide Dominion, and ask, as I have done repeatedly, why a teacher of the Maritime Provinces, east or west, has as weak a professional claim in the communities of the interior of Canada, and *vice versa*, as a French teacher would have in Prussia or an English teacher in France, I readily find the text from

which I have to preach this evening a practical and let me hope an orthodox discourse—a discourse which at this point is fittingly illustrated by the doubts which a certain beadle had about the orthodoxy of his fellow-parishioners.

There is temerity, perhaps, though no lack of loyalty, let it be understood, in my hinting at imperfections in the British North America Act. Constitutions would be amended much more frequently were it not for the awe that hangs around them ; and yet, when I say that the British North America Act is not a complete embodiment of all the unifying forces that tend to make a nation, there is no disloyalty in my statement towards the union or its constitution, not even a desire on my part to advocate any change in its clauses, or any longing on your part, I hope, should you join with me, for anything in the shape of a revolution. The organization of a National or Central Bureau of Education for Canada, let me here say as emphatically as words can emphasize, may be accomplished without any change in the constitution of the country or infringement of the rights of any province ; and if it come to be recognized as a substitution for a constitutional element, eliminated or suppressed in 1867, whereby the common school was relegated to the provinces and can never now become a national institution, then surely there are two very strong reasons for the support of my thesis, especially on the part of the members of an association that has been organized on a national or inter-provincial basis as ours has been.

And here I may say that just as I was in the act of writing the last sentence the mail unexpectedly brought to my hand—a strange coincidence, you will say—the last volume of the report of the Commissioner of Education for the United States, and when you learn that it is the report of the

National Bureau of Education at Washington you will at once understand how much of a satisfaction it was to me to receive it. It comprises a volume of over eleven hundred pages, and I have only to tell you that the Bureau, over which Dr. Harris so worthily presides, has no more of a constitutional oversight of the State school systems than the Department of Agriculture at Ottawa has over the functions and activities of the Departments of Agriculture in the various provinces, and then proceed to place a copy of the report in question in each of your hands, in order to convince you that a National or Central Bureau of Education at Ottawa is of a truth a consummation devoutly to be wished for. And here, on the principle of providing a model for the moment, it may be as well to look at the constitution of the Washington Bureau and the influences that led to its organization.

The relationship between the Washington Government and the States' Governments is not altogether identical, as you know, with the relationship between the Ottawa Government and the various Provincial Governments. In the matter of education there are many differences, for the Federal Government has more than once come to the direct assistance of the schools of the various States in more ways than one. For instance, in 1876 the Government at Washington distributed forty-two millions of dollars among the schools of the various States then existing, while no less than ten millions of acres of land have been apportioned in behalf of education, and large sums spent on the schools for the colored population in the South, for the Indian schools, and towards the educational development of Alaska. Our own Federal Government has not been altogether behind-hand in making provisions of a kindred character, and, on this account, we have the very

strongest hopes that it will go further and take a leaf out of the book of educational enterprise at Washington in the organization of a Canadian Bureau of Education.

In 1867, the year of our own Confederation, the Bureau of Education of the United States was organized under the Commissionership of Dr. Henry Barnard, as a sub-Department of the Department of the Interior; and when one considers the interblending of educational influences that has taken place since its organization and how it has brought about the nearest possible approach to "one country, one educational prestige," the United States is ever likely to see; and when one considers, with all due loyalty, how far we in Canada here are still from a truly national consolidation even after thirty years of Confederation, and how effectually the common school brought under co-ordinating influences and wider national sympathies can be made a nursery for the true patriotism, it is our duty as teachers, it is our duty as Canadians, to plead for the organization of a like institution in our own country.

And, open though I may be to a charge of repeating myself, I may further say that to advocate a national system of schools for Canada now is to shut our eyes to the constitution of our common country and the provincial rights and interests it protects. The establishing of a national system of education for Canada means revolution, and, as my friend Dr. Parkin may tell us, we are hardly prepared for a revolution; that is, if it should eventuate in our *going it alone*. In the organization of a Bureau of Education for Canada there is not, as I have already said, the least tendency towards revolution, its functions being for the most part missionary and its administration *ex officio*. All that would be required would be a vote for its support as a sub-Department under any

of the great Departments at Ottawa, with liberty to work out its own destiny of usefulness, as has the Bureau at Washington — a great co-ordinating force in the educational affairs of the Dominion. As such a force it would neither be over nor under any Provincial authority, perhaps not even advisory in an official sense, yet bringing about by judicious and justifiable means an assimilation of Provincial educational necessities and pedagogic affinities that would eventually bring all the teachers of Canada, and, through them, the rising generation, to see the Provincial shading away into the Federal, into the national.

And if, after what I have said, and what may be said in the after discussions on the subject, you as a Dominion Association care to appoint a committee to take charge of this matter and press it upon the Federal authorities as a practical question, your memorial would not differ materially from the memorial presented to Congress by the educationists of the United States urging the organization of the Washington Bureau, and which I venture to give here as a concrete setting forth of what our Bureau at Ottawa might be expected to accomplish. It is as follows:

"It was the unanimous opinion of the Association that the interests of education would be greatly promoted by the organization of such a Bureau at the present time; that it would render needed assistance in the establishment of school systems where they do not now exist, and that it would prove a potent means for improving and vitalizing existing systems. This it could accomplish:

"1. By securing greater uniformity and accuracy in school statistics, and so interpreting them that they may be more widely available and reliable as educational tests and measures;

"2. By bringing together the results of school systems in different com-

munities, states and countries, and determining their comparative value ;

"3. By collecting the results of all important experiments in new and special methods of school instruction and management, and making them the common property of school officers and teachers throughout the country ;

"4. By diffusing among the people information respecting the school laws of the different States, the different classes of school officers and their relative duties, the various modes of providing and disbursing school funds, the qualifications of teachers, the modes of their examination, and the agencies provided for their special training, the best methods of classifying and grading schools, improved plans of schoolhouses together with modes of heating and ventilation, etc.—information now obtained only by a few persons and at great expense, but which is of the highest value to all entrusted with the management of schools ;

"5. By aiding Committees and States in the organization of school systems in which mischievous errors shall be avoided, and vital agencies and well-tried improvements be included ;

"6. By the general diffusion of correct ideas respecting the value of education as a quickener of intellectual activities, as a moral renovator, as a multiplier of industry, and a consequent producer of wealth, and, finally, as the strength and shield of civil liberty."

And with this memorial as a foreshadowing of what the councils of this Association may accomplish—an Association that had its birth, let us hope, in the desire for a broader federal communing one with the other over school interests and educational advancement—I may be permitted to indicate in a final practical word what we teachers may expect from our own Educational Bureau. Its primary object would of course be the collecting of statistics

and facts for the purpose of showing in a concise and comparative form the progress of education in the several provinces. We want to know more of one another and our ways of doing things, since the civilization and patriotic pride we boast of as ours demands that we should provide ourselves and our children with the best of everything that is going. Why should the Nova Scotian system of schools be accredited, for long, with excellencies which ours of Quebec are said not to possess ; or why should there be any deficiencies real or theoretic in the school systems of Prince Edward Island and British Columbia when brought into comparison with those of Ontario and Manitoba ? Should educational progress among us know any provincial boundary line ? Are the essentials of a good school system not the same for New Brunswick as for the North-western Territories ? Is the science of education founded on the eternities or on the conventional ? Are the principles of pedagogy qualified by climatic differences ? Is there anything in the physical or intellectual build of the Nova Scotian teacher that unfits him to take charge of a school in Ontario ? Let us endeavor to answer these queries, and through the answers discern the neglected nationalizing force which the organization of an Educational Bureau for Canada may revive amongst us, when once the genius of our common school education is turned in a large measure away from the narrowing influences of a provincial bias into the hands of the broad-minded Canadian teacher and educationist.

And yet there is a higher function for the Bureau of Education, as Dr. Harris's last report shows from his table of contents and scholarly articles. In that report there are to be found articles on Education in Great Britain and Ireland, in France, Nor-

way, Denmark and Central Europe ; Commercial Education in other countries ; the Teaching of Civics in Switzerland, France and England ; Education in Greece ; Sunday Schools ; the Curriculum of the Land-Grant Colleges ; the Legal Rights of Children ; the Study of Imitation ; Horace Mann and the Great Revival of the American Common School ; Henry Barnard ; Report of the Committee of Twelve ; Entrance Requirements for Engineering Colleges ; Early History of the Kindergarten ; some recent Contributions on Biology, Sociology, and Metallurgy of Colleges for the Benefit of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts. And, when you read that report for yourself or any of the previous reports, I venture to say that it will be pleasant for you to note that, in these articles and the investigations on which they have been founded, the faddist has been permitted to have no part. The object of such a collaboration is to give a knowledge of other systems, so that teachers and educationists, comparing their own experiences and deficiencies and fallacies with the experiences and investigations of others, may arrive at the highest of all knowledge which gives them the power to suggest and direct. Under the able direction of Dr. Harris, the pedagogic necessities are ever held paramount by the Washington Bureau. With it the true function of the school is ever kept in view. And we can hardly think otherwise than that our Canadian Bureau, when organized under like wise and benign counsels, will not only lead to the elimination of the deficiency in our school systems, and the

implanting of the efficient, but will tend to make of our teachers and our schools what they ought to become, more and more every day, agencies in developing that community of thought and feeling which has the minimum of a provincial *penchant* about it. In the longing which some have for a republic on the St. Lawrence there is no political significance in our times. Our children's children may not live to have it, if some of my friends on the platform here should have their way. But what is there to prevent us all from longing to hear of the organization of a Canadian institution which, while disturbing no provincial rights, nor even turning the hair of a provincial prejudice, will undoubtedly bring us as teachers nearer and nearer to a true recognition of educational eternities that make for the development of the higher intellectualities, and moralities and of the brotherhood in which the true patriotism lives and breathes and has its being. And, when the experiences of the ethical force thus to be inaugurated comes to be written off in the history of our coming national aggrandizement, not one but thousands of our poets will be able to sing with no inflation in words :

My birthright land a debt of song I pay,
 A debt of love that lieth on my soul,
 When memory draws the veil of bygone
 day,
 And olden music greets the lifting scroll ;
 A tribute to thy freedom's faith I bring,
 The piety that scents the globe I sing,
 Thy purple hills whose silver mists unroll
 The wavering gold of dawn, thy lowing
 plains
 And maple banks and braes where hamlet
 meekness reigns.

THE GRAVE-TREE.*

Let me have a scarlet maple
 For the grave-tree at my head,
 With the quiet sun behind it,
 In the years when I am dead.

Let me have it for a signal,
 Where the long winds stream and stream,
 Clear across the dim blue distance,
 Like a horn blown in a dream.

Scarlet when the April vanguard
 Bugles up the laggard Spring,
 Scarlet when the bannered Autumn
 Marches by unwavering.

It will comfort me with honey
 When the shining rifts and showers
 Sweep across the purple valley
 And bring back the forest flowers.

It will be my leafy cabin,
 Large enough when June returns,
 And I hear the golden thrushes
 Flute and hesitate by turns.

And in fall, some yellow morning,
 When the stealthy frost has come,
 Leaf by leaf it will befriend me
 As with comrades going home.

Let me have the Silent Valley
 And the hill that fronts the east,
 So that I can watch the morning
 Redden and the stars released.

Leave me in the Great Lone Country,
 For I shall not be afraid
 With the shy moose and the beaver
 There within my scarlet shade.

I would sleep, but not too soundly,
 Where the sunning partridge drums,

Till the crickets hush before him
 When the Scarlet Hunter comes.

That will be in warm September,
 In the stillness of the year,
 When the river-blue is deepest,
 And the other world is near.

When the apples burn their reddest
 And the corn is in the sheaves,
 I shall stir and waken lightly
 At a footfall in the leaves.

It will be the Scarlet Hunter
 Come to tell me time is done ;
 On the idle hills forever
 There will stand the idle sun.

There the wind will stay to whisper
 Many wonders to the reeds :
 But I shall not fear to follow
 Where my Scarlet Hunter leads.

I shall know him in the darkling
 Murmur of the river bars,
 While his feet are on the mountains
 Treading out the smouldering stars.

I shall know him in the sunshine
 Sleeping in my scarlet tree,
 Long before he halts beside it
 Stooping down to summon me.

Then fear not, my friends, to leave me
 In the boding autumn vast ;
 There are many things to think of
 When the roving days are past.

Leave me by the scarlet maple,
 When the journeying shadows fail,
 Waiting till the Scarlet Hunter
 Pass upon the endless trail.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Deliver not the tasks of might
 To weakness, neither hide the ray
 From those, not blind, who wait for day,
 Tho' sitting girt with doubtful light.

"That from Discussion's lips may fall
 With Life, that, working strongly, binds—
 Set in all lights by many minds,
 So close the interests of all."

The people of New Brunswick will be pleased to learn that the Freshman Class entering this year is the largest that has ever entered the University of New Brunswick.

The report is current that after the sub-examiners had finished their work of reading the answers of candidates in the arithmetic paper this year, at the mid-summer examination of the Edu-

*From "By the Aurelian Wall and Other Elegies." By Bliss Carman. Lamson, Wolfe & Co., Publishers. Price \$1.

cation Department, Ontario, and had plucked fifty-seven per cent. of the number of those who wrote for any part of the Junior Leaving Examination, the authorities of the Department took the report of the examiners, and passed anyone who obtained 25 per cent. on the arithmetic paper. Who the authority is the report does not say. We are informed that the sub-examiners were not consulted in regard to this mode of dealing with their report. This manner of dealing with such blunders is in a way of becoming historic. To remedy the evils caused by such papers, the Department has repeatedly adopted the convenient expedient, though a very misleading one, of lowering the usual percentage required to pass in the subject on which the paper was set. It is needless to say that the remedy is quite inadequate. To use a common phrase, we are "tired" referring to this unpleasant matter year after year. We are sure the people of Ontario, especially the teachers thereof, would be pleased to hear from the minister an explanation of this irritating phenomenon. Has he yet thought of calling to his aid the lady teachers of the province? Perhaps they by their skill and patience might be able in a short time to pull us out of this examination muddle. A word from the Minister on the repeated failures of securing reasonable and fair examination papers is in order. Mr. Coombs' article, in this issue, makes it plain that the same tendency to carelessness, or undue haste in the preparation of examination papers, is to be found among those responsible for the papers set for the Public School Leaving Examination. We feel ourselves compelled to ask "Are these men paid for their services?"

In the discussions that appear in the pages of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY from month to month on the subject of school examina-

tions, it is remarkable how few of our prominent teachers care to take open part in the consideration of such an important topic, notwithstanding the fact that our columns are always free to them. In the address of the Minister of Education, which we published last month, a direct reference is made to the study of arithmetic as a home task, and there is surely no teacher in the land who will not commend it as a point well taken, when every phase of the question has been carefully examined. The teacher who requires a pupil to commit to memory anything which he does not understand is one who has failed to catch even a glimpse of what the true education means, and a teacher who confronts a pupil with discredit marks because he has failed to solve a problem all by himself, after hours of labor, has surely something of the unthinking task-master about him. But when the examiner, the gentleman who prepares the annual examination papers, attempts to puzzle children with problems that come within his sphere of what "may be just a little difficult," he certainly may safely be ranked as one who does not know his business. The cry against the arithmetical puzzles prepared for pupils on their way to the university is not confined to the Province of Ontario, though the other provinces, it would seem, found their grievance upon the inclination they notice in their school examiners to imitate the arithmeticians of Ontario. The example they say has been set by Ontario, and, unless the arithmetic papers of Ontario come to be modified at an early date, it is all but certain that the "problem craze" will run its impracticable course from Halifax to Vancouver, like an epidemic that leaves its victims behind it as it passes from district to district. Difficult problems, Dr. Ross has wisely said, should never be assigned for home study, and, were he only to say further that puzzling problems should

never have place in an examination paper set for children, he would not fail to raise a shout of applause from thousands of parents and teachers. Practice in speed and accuracy in the elementary rules are quite defensible, says the Minister, but had he used the word "indispensable" and emphasized it he would have been nearer the truth and possibly nearer his own wish in the matter. There is hardly a week in which some poor, luckless youth does not find the arithmetical puzzles of the text-books of no service to him in his daily counting-house work—not a day in which he does not wish his teacher had given more attention to a ready manipulation of figures and less to the arithmetical equation about which there is such a ridiculous lack of an everyday look. Ontario has gone too far in this direction, and the other provinces are fast following in her wake. Are the teachers going to say halt, or have they become as infatuated with the craze as the examiners?

Last month we made space for Dr. Harrison, and, while it is pleasant to learn that the New Brunswick University is making some progress, we regret that its president has thought it prudent to impugn our motives in referring to the history of the institution over which he presides. What we said about the New Brunswick University was no "old woman's fable," but common hearsay in that province at the time of the writing of our articles, as President Harrison may find out by perusing the newspapers and periodicals of St. John and Fredericton. We are glad to notice that it is the intention of Dr. Harrison to bring the institution more in touch with the general educational system of the province through his own personality, and that was all we pleaded for. If the doctor will go a step further, and bring his institution more in touch with Canadian affairs, he will then certainly

do all that any one could expect of him. We wish the institution every success under the policy that has just been inaugurated, and hope to hear that New Brunswick University has at length recognized that there are distinguished Canadians outside of New Brunswick who would do honor to the university were their sympathies enlisted in its behalf.

Prince Edward Island has a Teachers' Association of its own and its annual convention is being held this month. The history of the educational movement in the little province in the Gulf is full of interest, and it is our intention to give some attention to its affairs as we obtain the necessary information. We shall be glad to hear from correspondents in that section of our wide extending country.

The echoes from the Halifax convention are still being heard from various parts. Dr. MacCabe's idea of assimilation of examination standards was a fitting corollary to the address of Dr. Harper in behalf of a Federal Bureau of Education. We publish Dr. Harper's address this month, and expect to present some of the other papers read at the convention from month to month. The question of a Bureau of Education is being carefully considered by the newspapers, and there seems to be growing a general verdict in its favor. Our readers would do well to examine the terms on which it is proposed to organize such a sub-department, and the beneficial results that may naturally be expected to arise from it. Some have raised minor issues, such as the expense of the work, and the difficulties that would lie in its way, but no useful organization has ever run its course without meeting difficulties in its way, and, in our opinion, the expense would be money expended in the highest and

noblest works in which, as Canadians, we could be engaged—in the consolidation of our country as one people and one nation.

NOTES AND COMMENTS.

PROF. JOHN EARLE talks thus in *The Educational Review* of Madras, India, in the August number :

Those who recognize the importance of English grammar fall into two classes, according as they follow either the old scholastic tradition, or seek new lights in the modern development of philological learning. Both of these have missed the tree of philological learning. Both of these have missed profitable paths.

The man who sits down to make an English grammar has to face this practical question : Shall I furnish the student with a set of authorized phrases, shall I prescribe what to choose and what to avoid in diction, pronouncing *ex cathedra* upon all points of divergent practice, such as the split infinitive, pendant particle, and so forth ? Or, shall I pass before him the whole grammatical movement, in all the length and continuity of its operation, and thus furnish him with the leading data for the exercise of his judgment and the cultivation of his taste ?

In specific rules about diction there is not much to open the mind, not much of educational value ; and, if our current grammars are mostly concerned with such things, this has not come about as the result of a mature experience, but it is the natural consequence of certain casual antecedents, combined with the neglect of inquiring after a better system. The scholastic English grammars simply follow tradition, and, if we trace back the tradition to its source, we come to the Latin grammar, upon which our first English grammars were based. This was

necessary and unavoidable at the first ; but the influence of the model lasted too long, until it exercised a baneful restraint upon the development of a genuine English grammar. Latin is a dead language and English is a living language ; and this is a vital difference for the matter under discussion. The Latin declensions and conjugations are forever fixed. So are all the laws of Latin syntax, and the canons in classic taste in phraseology and composition, and, therefore, the Latin grammarian may safely deal in precepts, and prohibitions, because classic Latin cannot change, and a rule that was good in the sixteenth century is good now and always. But English lives and grows, and he who would teach English grammar must frame his operations accordingly. If he lays down many precise rules, his rules may be left behind by new and enterprising writers, like Thomas Carlyle and Matthew Arnold and Mr. Grant Allen. His business, then, is to inform and cultivate the grammatical instinct of the scholar, and exhibit the usage of good authors in such a manner as may best serve to exercise the judgment of the learner and develop a sound grammatical taste.

In education, the teacher of English is advised in the following kindly way by Samuel Thurber :

Give yourself no more compositions to read than you can read day by day. Learn the sorts of mistakes that your pupils make, and sometimes speak of these, if the pupils are old enough to care to listen to you. See individuals by themselves, and make sure that each is anxious to win your praise. You may praise very young

children without making them conceited; and, if you praise as often as possible, you provide yourself with a most formidable weapon of censure in simple abstinence from praise when it is not deserved.

It is of no use to correct young children's work in detail. Why should not the boy or the girl be allowed to write in the boyish or girlish way, as well as to speak in the boyish or girlish voice, or to move, to sing, to dance in the boyish or girlish way? The pedant corrects young compositions into mature forms—a ridiculous and useless labor. You will distinguish between things positive, like spelling, which are distinctly right or wrong, and things relative and elastic, like the choice of words and phrases, which are good or bad according to season and place. Spelling and punctuation and capitalization are as rigid as mathematics. It is ridiculous for a great boy or girl not to know how to distinguish "to" and "too," to put s's in "disappear" and "disappoint." But for precocious conventionality in style I have no praise. Be chary of correction. By correcting too much you may easily check spontaneity; and spontaneity in the child is to the teacher of English precious above all things else.

Lord Balfour visited Paisley on Wednesday. The principal object of his visit was to open a new grammar school, which has been erected for the burgh at a cost of £40,000, of which sum £15,000 was contributed by the trustees of the late Mr. W. B. Balfour, who was for many years the representative in Parliament of the constituency.

In opening the school, Lord Balfour first considered the work which lay before the Scottish Education Department when it first obtained a separate constitution in 1885, and said that during the last ten years the cast-iron rigidity of codes had been much relaxed, the initial step in that direction

having been taken by the Scottish Education Department. In 1888 payment on individual examination was entirely abolished for the lower half of Scottish schools. This rested upon a sound principle—that the individual test should be imposed at the end of a school career—and he claimed for it that it had been entirely successful. From that first step the Department had steadily advanced. Their latest action was set forth in a circular (223) issued on August 11th last, describing the new method to be followed in inspection, the greater responsibility to be placed on school authorities, and the inducements that were to be held out to pupils to aim, not at the minimum labor certificate, but at the merit certificate, as the goal of their school career. The introduction of the elementary education had undoubtedly created a sharper line of demarcation between elementary and secondary education, and had led to a general opinion that all the education which ought to be given at the public expense was that which was free, and that anything beyond was for a privileged class. Those were results which he greatly regretted. They had in late years done much in the way of making education free; some desired that they should go still further. He did not say it ought never to be so, but in the meantime he thought they had gone far enough, and that it was their primary duty, not to fritter away educational resources, but to do all they could to make the range of education wider and its standard higher. After referring to the recent history of Scottish secondary education, Lord Balfour said that in April, 1897, the responsibility for agricultural education, and this year science and art administration, had been transferred to the Scottish Education Department. The latter step could only be accomplished for England by legislation, and it was one of the chief features in a

bill which had been issued for the purpose of eliciting expressions of opinion, preparatory to more active steps next year. He would like to remind them of the field of operation which now lay before the Scottish Education Department. He was the more anxious to do this as there were signs that their position and efforts were attracting attention outside Scotland; a few days ago, for instance, there was a very appreciative notice of their work in the *Times* newspaper. It was evidently written by someone who had caught the spirit in which they wished to work, and it showed much knowledge of the problem that lay before them. Not only the supervision of all elementary education, but that of all secondary education, belonged to the Department. The Technical Education Acts were now administered by it, and all the grants for science and art came within its range. It was their duty to see how both art and science might enter into general education; how each might be developed as part of a sound educational curriculum; how they might be most usefully adapted to the varying requirements of each locality; and how, above all, they might enlist the interests of the leaders of various industries in advancing either the scientific or the artistic instruction that might help the community with which they were connected. They were not going to regard only a certain number of passes, in various branches of science or of art, as the things which they must encourage and pay for. They proposed to keep steadily in view two grades of schools—the elementary and the secondary. These could not assume one another's functions without mutual injury. They wished to make secondary schools available for all whose circumstances or whose talents made it expedient that they should take advantage of them. There was no difference of opinion as to the ends amongst those who took an interest in the subject. But there was a difference as to the means. He was not prepared, either on behalf of himself or of the Government, to give his adhesion to the new doctrine of free secondary education. He thought it was best to keep the fees; but to provide free places and bursaries so far as there was a real requirement for them, and so far as it could be done without crippling the school. The first and most important thing was to have first-rate and well-equipped schools. Personally, he preferred the proposal of the original memorandum issued by the Department in 1892, which aimed at a moderate average fee. In secondary education one condition of a grant should be a limitation of fee to a sum which could fairly be faced by a middle-class parent. If a school provided for a class who could pay a higher fee, then it had the less need of State assistance. As regarded the elementary schools, they had now come to recognize that the school must be judged chiefly, not by the individual results in all its classes, but on what it could accomplish for its pupils before they left. The school authorities should arrange and classify as they thought best. The real aim was to be, not the labor certificate, which was only a loophole for those whose circumstances made longer attendance impossible, but the merit certificate, which opened the door of secondary education. They should discourage a long string of specific subjects. That might be a matter of cram. What they should ask was really a higher educational aim. As regarded the new grant of about £35,000, under the Local Taxation Account Act, he was asked to promise legislation and to postpone action until that legislation was passed. Without saying that legislation might not hereafter be expedient and even necessary, he had declined to tie his

hands by saying he should do nothing without it. The Department would proceed tentatively, careful that no vested interests be created. They would do all they could to proportion the shares of that grant to the amount of local effort which was made. But they had definite aims of much urgency which they were unwilling to delay. Agricultural institutions were claiming increased aid. Schools of navigation might be established on a wider basis. They had already offered grants to higher-grade science schools, and they were anxious to give some encouragement to schools of a similar grade which had a more directly commercial aim. Besides this, they would like to recast the system under which specific subjects were taught. They had carried on the inspection of higher schools under severe difficulties and with narrow resources, because the cost had been defrayed from the money accruing under the Act of 1892. With the new sum available they hoped to be less hampered in the work and to make the leaving certificate examination include scientific subjects. He claimed that they were able to put forward a wide-reaching scheme, and to indicate pretty clearly how they meant to carry it out. If legislation should be necessary, he should not hesitate to propose it.—*School Guardian*.

CURRENT EVENTS.

A much more sensible proposal, and one which found general support in the Synod (Anglican), outlines an improvement in the teaching done in Sunday Schools. Recognizing the improbability of introducing further religious teaching into the Public School system, all Protestant clergymen might with good results devote themselves to the improvement and extension of Sunday Schools. It is doubtful, however, if they will ever reach a high standard of efficiency until a paid manager or superintendent is employed. Take, for instance, the Anglican, Presbyterian, Methodist or Baptist Sunday Schools of Toronto, do they—though their mission is held by the churches to be much more important than secular education—compare either in teachers or in management with the day schools? Each of the bodies named is strong enough to employ a first-class superintendent to look after all the city schools of the denomination, and the burden would not be heavy if a thoroughly experienced teacher were paid to conduct each school. There is as good reason for paying the manager of the Sunday School as there is for paying the pastor of the church, for one is as thoroughly a spiritual affair as the other. No one is permitted to teach in a Public School who has not obtained a certificate of qualification and received instruction in the art of teaching at a Normal or Model School. Why, then, should young people who seldom know much of religion and often nothing of teaching or disciplining a class be entrusted with the imparting of a knowledge of sacred things? If, as the Synod holds, it is so desirable that religion should be taught in the day schools, it is certainly still more desirable that it should be properly taught in the Sunday Schools. That it is properly taught or that anything is properly taught in the majority of the Sunday Schools is extremely doubtful. Moreover, a lack of appreciation of the instruction of children in religious matters is plainly shown by the carelessness and slipshod management of the Sunday Schools, and it cannot be hidden by the unctuous utterances of clergymen who demand that the Public

School teachers, irreligious though they may be, shall do properly that which is improperly done or left undone by the so-called religious people themselves. Before further demands are made for religious teaching in the Public Schools every denomination favoring such a change should prove that it means something besides shirking its own proper task.

This can be proven by having Sunday Schools which mean something more than congregating the children together to hear a couple of prayers, sing two or three hymns, read or recite a few verses of Scripture, and after a noisy session scamper home. The accommodation provided is very often entirely unsuitable; the maps and materials to be used in teaching are either absent or utterly inadequate, the discipline lax, and indeed the power to punish an unruly child without expulsion almost entirely withheld. Many of the teachers take a class for the "fun of the thing"; it is not unusual for superintendents to be lacking in both piety and ability to teach or procure or direct good teaching. But all these deficiencies have been recognized and permitted to exist year after year, while many of the ministers, instead of devoting their energies in reforming the Sunday Schools, have satisfied their consciences and their congregations by occasionally clamoring for religion to be taught in the Public Schools.

There would be no complaint from the taxpayers if the buildings used for the day schools were used on Sundays

by the religious denominations, singly or in unison, for the purpose of teaching religion and helping the ignorant, whether old or young, to learn to read the Sacred Book for themselves. If the denominations united they could employ first class teachers for a trifle—indeed, many professional and business men who have been teachers would volunteer two or three hours service for the work if Sunday Schools were to be taken seriously—and in this way intelligent and approved methods would be employed in instilling into the youthful mind the necessary knowledge of the Bible, sacred history and the moral law. Instead of dragging children to church to hear sermons that they do not understand, they might be sent to such schools with the very best results. Now that the Synod has taken the matter up, other churches in their great gatherings should consider it also and see if they can excuse themselves for their inexcusable neglect in providing proper Sunday School facilities. It is useless to cry out that such Sunday Schools as I have outlined would be too much trouble; to Christians there cannot be too much trouble when souls are concerned and youthful education in sacred matters is to be imparted. Perhaps, if more money were spent on starting the children right, less would have to be expended on inducing people to act properly later in their lives; and, if children were gathered together on Sundays to hear simple lectures from the professors in the colleges and learned men of the Church, they would sooner recognize their responsibility to their Maker and to one another.—*Don, in Saturday Night.*

MAGAZINES.

Scribner's Magazine has been most successful in the past in securing artistic covers that have been characteristic not only of the season of publication but of the genius of the magazine. They have never been more successful than in the October issue. There is still little to be found in the more popular magazines beyond articles and stories of war; besides such provision we find in *Scribner's* an excellent instalment of *The Workers*, which, unfortunately, is nearing its conclusion, and an equally pleasing portion of *Red Rock*, a serial of unusual merit.

The Bookman, in its monthly issues, succeeds in commenting upon an extraordinary number of books and events. The September number is no exception to this rule. Prof. Peck himself brings the average up to an astonishing point, and he is assisted by such well-known writers as Beatrice

Harraden, who contributes an article on Mrs. Lynn Linton, Gelett Burgess, Brander Matthews and George Merriam Hyde, besides many other regular contributors. *John Splendid*, a novel by Neil Munro, which is attracting a considerable amount of attention, is at present running in *The Bookman*.

The Ladies' Home Journal publish in their October issue an exceedingly entertaining account of Mark Twain, with a number of illustrations, including portraits of the author's cats. There is also a most interesting article on the life of Richard Wagner, by Houston Stewart Chamberlain, the author of the *Biography of Richard Wagner*. There is an astonishing amount of advice to young women in this issue, and incidentally a good deal to young men. It is hoped both classes will profit by it.

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES.

THE announcement that a change has taken place in the great nebula in the constellation of Andromeda comes from a very reliable source, the Pulkowa observatory, where one of the three or four largest telescopes in the world is erected. If it turns out to be quite true, the importance of the discovery cannot be overestimated. Ever since La Place's time astronomers have asked themselves, is there any nebula in the heavens now that shows any stage of the process outlined by the nebular hypothesis? The objects of this class known to us are mostly very irregular in shape, and among those which are compact and round there is still no appearance of a central condensation. If, then, a single one of the nebulae shows this phenomenon it will be very

substantial evidence that the theory is correct. In some of the photographs of the Andromeda nebula there is the appearance of separation rings, but the centre has always been shown as a great mass of gaseous matter. We will hope that the announcement is correct, and that we have now evidence of the "cooling and condensing" demanded by La Place's famous hypothesis. Andromeda is now in good position for observation in the eastern evening sky, but, of course, small telescopes show the nebula only as a patch of hazy light.

Venus reaches her greatest brilliancy on Oct. 26th, and is then in the crescent phase, about one quarter of the disc illuminated. The nearness to the earth much more than compensates for the part of the disc obscured as the

planet comes into "new moon" position. The disc is now forty-two seconds of arc in diameter, very much larger than that of Mars at his nearest. The observer at the telescope learns how tantalizing it is to look at Venus, remembering how close the planet is, and then finding it impossible to make out satisfactorily any clearly defined markings on the disc.

In the path of the October full moon lies the Pleiades group, observers in northern latitudes having an opportunity of seeing a beautiful series of occultations. Here the effect of parallax throws the moon too low. There will be an occultation of two of the stars in the constellation Pisces on the evening of October 25th, visible in Ontario, about eleven hours thirty minutes. The moon will be then ten days old, and consequently the stars disappear on the darkened limb, and, though of magnitude respectively of four and six, should be seen very well in a field glass.

Those interested in meteoric displays will be preparing to systematically observe the Leonid meteors due on November 13th; there will be no moon at that time, and, if we are favored with a clear, star-lit sky, the meteors will be better seen than in 1899, when the earth plunges into the thickest of the swarm. Of wandering meteors, astray, perhaps, from their companions, the most brilliant that has ever been noted in this country was seen on July 5th, as most of our readers are, no doubt, aware; it may be of interest to note that the president of the Astronomical Society has collected about one hundred reports of observation, and from a study of these hopes to be able to present a complete history of the object, having reference to point of entering the atmosphere, track pursued, size, degree of luminosity, and where it fell. If this can be done, and it is well worth trying, the record will be practically unique.

THOS. LINDSAY, Toronto.

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THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

NOVEMBER, 1898.

SUPERINTENDENT GREENWOOD'S ANNUAL ADDRESS.

THE education provided for the child by the state is limited to months, days, and hours, and these again by so many hours a day and so many days of the week for each year. The maximum number of weeks not to exceed forty, the hours of the day not to exceed seven—so that, out of the one hundred and sixty-eight hours a week, the child does not come directly under the teacher's control more than thirty-five hours, and possibly as few as twenty hours. Again, between the spring and fall session there is always an interval of from twelve to sixteen weeks when the child does not attend school, but is supposed to be resting and building up his bodily strength for the next school year. This condition faces one of the unsolved problems—what to do with the city and town children during vacation? Shall their vacation games and amusements be supervised, or partly supervised, or shall they be turned loose to enjoy themselves as best they may—on the streets, in the alleys, and on vacant lots? To put this question in another way, has the public a duty to perform for the children when they are not in school? Would it be a violation of the home relations between parent and child, if the state should exercise a healthful supervision a part of the time over its children during the long heated term? There are children, it must be admitted, who have to work during

the summer months, but from a sanitary standpoint they, too, need attention and the state now regulates the hours as well as inspects the conditions under which child labor is employed.

The schools can do only a part of the work towards educating the child, and that a minor part under the most favorable conditions. The faculty to play is instinctive among children, as it also is among the young of the inferior animals, and play is the spontaneous way that the child has to express himself most naturally. We observe this tendency among children in a thousand forms in their games and antics. If they are pent up in a small space or room, they tease and torment one another, and appeals are continually made to have a supervisor interfere to make some one behave. In such a situation the vicious and selfish propensities are most fully and freely developed, and the seeds of envy, jealousy and malignity sink their roots down deep into the child's nature. To tell children to sit still and be good, and to enforce the command, is often worse than some of the deadening processes occasionally practised in a few well-ordered schools. To repress childhood is not to understand the nature of children; and, in making this statement, it is not to be inferred that the child is not to learn the lessons of obedience, silence and industry at the proper time.

The street influence, unbridled, is about the worst possible school of instruction the child can enter. Curiosity is a predominant trait of childhood, and only let a policeman's whistle blow, or a drunken man pass along the street, and the children come trooping to the scene in swarms. As soon as the child is large enough to open the gate and rush into the street, he enters into a school in which all the vicious traits of a depraved character are fostered. A species of demoralization and terror is practised by larger boys on the smaller that can find its counterpart only in the misrule which the dominant class in some nations practise, as extortion on the dependent and helpless class whom they govern. Street gangs are formed—veritable Ishmaelites—whose hands are against everyone and everyone's hands against them. They tease, torment and annoy the citizens; they steal from other children, snatch fruit and vegetables from the grocery stores, defy the police and insult girls—doing many of these things because they think it is funny. Under such tuition they develop a low, quick species of cunning, but it is acquired at the expense of arrested development along higher and better lines of growth. It is only a step from the street and alley associations to crime and wretchedness in their more pronounced forms. Out of this class is recruited that element which stands as a constant menace to good citizenship in the city. I believe that the chief cause—if not the very root of this demoralization—is traceable to inadequate playing facilities for the children. It is owing to misdirected energy, and this brings along in its train a long list of evils which dwarf and blight the child's moral, physical and spiritual growth, unless such a one as *Oliver Twist* be found now and then, able to withstand all adverse conditions of environment and rise triumphant over all.

A good playground is as necessary to a child's growth, health, happiness, culture and general intelligence as any other necessary condition of its existence. By furnishing such conditions the child is given an opportunity to strengthen his character in every direction by giving him cheerfulness, freedom, and contentment, repressing the evil tendencies, choking them out, as it were, and giving the better side of his nature a chance to expand and grow into that firmness of habit known as good character. That such playgrounds are needed in almost every city, no one will have the hardihood to deny. There should not be little spots of ground here and there where the children must be good and quiet and not make a noise. They ought to be large enough for the children to play on, a hundred or a thousand at once. They should not be baseball grounds and nothing more, but real playgrounds on which the games are regulated to suit the time of the year and the hours of the day.

For several years the feeling has spread among a large class of the people of this country that the schools should give much more attention to what are called "common things," and it is well known that the expression "common things" may be made to do drudgery for all conceivable occupations in which persons are engaged. It is evidently true, too, that what may be regarded as very common things in one line of work may be entirely unknown in other fields of activity. But the restrictive use in which "common things" is employed in an educational sense, limits the meaning to within a narrow compass—embracing some knowledge of natural objects of an organic and inorganic nature; but more particularly of plants, animals, soils, the atmosphere and its conditions—in short, nature studies.

Each trade brings one into relation with certain conditions which

must be mastered and understood to some extent. No doubt the chief impetus given to this kind of work, in addition to regular book learning, was owing to imported knowledge carried by certain teachers into school fresh from the farm, the workshop, the desk, and the laboratory. Among country children many things that they know and are familiar with need not be discussed in the country schools—but with city and town children this knowledge is a novel and an important acquisition from the fact that it is not common. Planting, growing, cultivation, harvest, and gathering in the crops—these are everyday affairs, and excite no great interest among children in the country; so the return of the migratory birds, the fishes in the streams, and the appearance of insect life, and all the manifestations of growth, maturity, and decay observed in the changing scenes of rural life, are matters of common occurrence. Besides this, the country child becomes, in one sense, “weather wise.” The very nature of the occupation in which his parents are engaged causes him to become a close observer of atmospheric conditions, and he learns to read these signs with as much facility and accuracy as he interprets her passing thoughts from his mother’s face. He absorbs the workings of nature with hardly an effort, and whenever something new or unusual attracts his attention he inquires of those older than himself for the reason. Of city or town life he knows little. He has not learned much of the strength of combination, or of how business is conducted, and in this respect he is far behind his city cousin. The difference is in the surroundings and the opportunities, and not in natural aptitude. A little levelling up would help both, no doubt, and this is the opportunity for the progressive teacher to import the child from one phase of life to another.

To induct the city children into nature study on a small scale would not be a great task, and yet it would afford genuine pleasure as well as valuable information. It may be done in the following manner in many schools. Let there be set aside a plot of ground at the schoolhouse upon which vegetables, cereals, etc., are planted. Let the boys and girls, who are interested in these things, prepare the ground, procure the seed, and do the planting and the cultivating, to see the plant start from the seed and produce its kind. All the children then would become familiar with growing crops. A part of this plot should be laid off into flower beds. If such a piece of ground could thus be cultivated at each school wherever practicable, the city and town children would become tolerably well acquainted with agricultural and horticultural industry on a small scale. The ideal school, I should say in passing, with its walks, flower beds, shade trees, and little patches of grains and grasses, and properly equipped inside as well as outside, is what the teachers of this state should strive for. And, to go a step further in this direction, at the country schoolhouses there should be two or three acres of land for experimental purposes—on which the teacher and the pupils could experiment with all kinds of fruits, grains, vegetables, flowers, and ornamental shade trees. This is not an impracticable scheme, but one which lies clearly within the reach of every neighborhood having a schoolhouse.

Another phase of nature study which may be taught incidentally is that of the weather; and this is a subject that is very closely allied with the study of geography, and the animal and vegetable products of a country. The temperature, the moisture or the dryness of the atmosphere, the direction of the wind and its velocity, the amount of rainfall or of snowfall, the cloudiness

and the kinds of movements of the clouds—these and many other daily phenomena are of such a nature as to attract and interest the attention of children, whether they reside in city or country. In addition to the small thermometers now supplied in each schoolroom, there should be a barometer at each building, and the pupils should be taught how to read it and to make records of the weather daily. There is no reason why the children should not become entirely familiar with these common objects of nature, and learn how to interpret them as they do other daily phenomena. It would furnish a basis for more extended observations, and would be carried forward as a means of establishing a rational and systematic method of arranging and classifying many of the leading facts concerning the atmosphere, the weather, its changes, and some of the laws underlying the subject of meteorology and its influence on men and crops generally.

This knowledge may furnish the explanation of what is known as "noisy and restless days in school."

Some things are accomplished by accident, but the habit of easy, rapid and accurate writing or speaking the English language is not one of them. It is a self-evident fact that wide differences exist among individuals as to the natural ability to acquire and to use the art of written or vocal expression, just as there are variations in the power to acquire other kinds of knowledge.

So far as instruction in this department of education is concerned, perhaps the unsatisfactory results may be ascribed, in a large measure, to the indefinite aims that the majority of teachers have in mind, or rather not in mind, in conducting pupils forward in this line of work. The usual method of procedure has been that of absorption or contamination by words and

sentences. That is to say, certain authors are read, analyzed, and reduced to the saturation point, so that unconsciously the learner is filled with their effluvia, and he lives and breathes a literary atmosphere till it literally fills his word, sentence, and paragraph-brain-cells, and all that he has to do when he needs to use this pent-up energy is to turn the composition tap, and let it flow out through cold ink on white paper, or to toss it out into the air to vibrate as a shiver around the world. Close reflection will convince anyone that this theory of making a style is largely imitative, and the effort of a writer trained under such a system of tuition will be put forth to counterfeits his style so as to avoid detection. I would not be understood as condemning the advantages that come to one from studying the classic authors of ancient and modern times, or of preferring some authors to others, because such studies are invaluable as revealing the structure and logical development of the human mind when working under the highest degree of intellectual inspiration; but what I do contend for is that the imitative standard is not the highest, nor, indeed, is it the best, for the learner. The style of each one is his own, and it should be as far removed from the imitative one as possible, and the sooner this fact is recognized and acted upon the better will teaching in English become.

A second element of weakness, as I conceive it to be, is in the vagueness of the objects aimed at. If I can succeed in making my meaning clear on this point, one great step will have been taken.

First, there are certain mechanical conditions that have to be complied with, such as the ability to write a clear, legible hand; to know how to spell correctly all the words used; to use capital letters properly, and to punctuate correctly, and to know when a sentence ends, and where a para-

graph begins and closes. The learner cannot acquire and retain this knowledge without becoming familiar with grammatical forms, and some standards of accuracy and clearness in the use of his mother tongue. His habits of thought will give him the idea of clearness in the orderly arrangement of his sentences in paragraphs, and why one order in sentences arrangement is preferable to another. The arrangement of words in sentence will reveal to him the necessity for an extensive and varied vocabulary. All of this presupposes some reading in order to fix the points in didactic instruction.

The point that I insist upon is this—that the teacher of English who has a cut-and-dried scheme, whatever grade the pupils may be, can never reach the best results. There should be no prescribed form except in the mechanical requirements mentioned. To follow models is to violate every instinct in nature by an attempt to level what no process, however great the pressure, can ever accomplish. The aim should be to get each pupil to express himself in his own way in the very choicest language possible. This should be the spirit and aim of all successful teaching. There must be instilled into the learner's mind the ambition to express himself well and in his own way, but his way should be such a one as embodies correctness, neatness, clearness and elegance. For the cultivation of exact expression, I know of no other species of composition equal to the written solution of a problem in arithmetic or algebra, ready to put into print. This develops logical consecutiveness,—each step in its proper place. The same exactness of arrangement in the treatment of other simple subjects will give the pupil a good idea of what is meant by logical unity in the unfolding of a subject. This appeals at once to the analytical faculty, and then it gives scope after

the analytical faculty has done its work for the imagination to embellish and adorn the facts in accordance with the canons of taste. Subjects that interest are generally the best to be assigned for composition, and it may be better not to give the same subject to all the members of the class. All slovenly, hasty writing in ward schools or high schools, just to answer questions or to take notes, can not be too strongly censured.

The idea that English is not to be taught except by those who are assigned to teach it, is one of those strange species of mental hallucinations that has its explanation in a clear misconception of the use and nature of our language. All instructions in our schools should tend in the same direction, and should not be running in cross currents.

No effort should be made to encourage learned writing in either ward or high school. The spontaneous effort — outburst of each one's individuality—is what should be aimed at. In due time the fine writing will take care of itself. Let the pupil be impressed with this solemn fact that if his writing gets into print, and it is not able to stand the tests of scholarship, it reacts upon him. Then he will most likely work to produce such writing as will reflect credit upon himself. The final rule upon which stress should be placed is that each one does his best every time he writes.

There is more unrest manifested in the present methods of teaching geography than in any other subject included in the common school curriculum. This change has been produced chiefly by a different conception as to the real issues involved in the subject matter and what factors are of the most importance to man with his fellow-man as exchangers of products — whether of the raw material or of manufactured articles. Under the old definition, geography was literally

a description of the earth's surface, but this definition is entirely too small for even a workable hypothesis at the present advanced stage of national intercourse. Even supplementing the definition by "what grows on its surface," it is still too narrow.

Instead of attacking the subject from the descriptive side and the mathematical side, and working out the political, it should commence with what the child can see, in his own immediate vicinity, of soil, hills, valley, plains, etc., and such plants as are produced in the garden, orchard, farm, or such articles as are manufactured in his own community, and such other raw or manufactured products as are brought within the range of his observation. Just enough of the physical and mathematical phrases of geography should be at first introduced as will familiarize the learner with the technical terms of the science. What is here intended is designed to open up, in the very earliest stage of the learner's progress, what may be gained from a knowledge of all those articles of household consumption found in our grocery and dry goods stores, and how they are brought from one place to another. The time has come when the great cities of the world are the real geographical centers, and they afford the basis for an intelligent investigation of the subject.

The sooner the conception spreads among our teachers that we are interested most in what a people produce and what they have to exchange with other people, and how trade is carried on between them and our merchants, the more nearly we approach this subject in an intelligent and instructive manner. Pertinent questions will be—what do they produce in that country, and how much of their trade do we need and how much do we get? Then, what do we produce that they want? Do we trade with them direct or through another nation? These

questions apply to foreign commerce, but they can be used with as much precision for domestic commerce. From those rudimentary beginnings, following the channels of commerce, the pupil is led out into all parts of the habitable globe. Wherever our ships and railroads go, he goes and can see the reasons therefor. He learns, furthermore, how to study the manners, the customs, the political institutions, and the various occupations in which the most of the people are engaged. Rivers, mountains, lakes, bays, straits, channels, sounds, and harbors are only serviceable to man in proportion as they can be used by him or as they influence climate, health, and trade; otherwise, they cut no figure in the affairs of the world. It is all well enough to talk about the undeveloped wealth of a country, but that amounts to little unless there are people who are bringing these treasures to man's use. Man, then, is the real factor involved, and not man as an isolated being—a Robinson Crusoe—but the trafficking, intelligent being is he who brings distant markets close enough together to exchange products.

So pressing has this kind of knowledge become that among the most advanced nations of Europe they have been forced to found and endow special schools for the purpose of furthering trade with distant countries. Such a movement should be inaugurated without delay in this country. The necessity is pressing now since we have opened a new chapter in the world's history, and will be henceforth one of the final arbiters in the progress of civilization. The battle of the nations is for the trade of the world. Experience has shown that trade is governed largely by well-established laws, and that these laws and principles can be applied with a tolerable degree of certainty to any set of industrial conditions. To use an illustration that is familiar to all of you,

the wholesale firms in Kansas City send out their travelling men to solicit trade over a wide extent of territory. Should they not do so, other centres would come in and occupy the territory, and get the trade. It pays to send men into cities and towns who know what the local merchants want for their customers. Now, upon a much larger scale, is, practically, what the Germans, the French, the Hollanders, and the English are doing, or are getting ready to do, with all the more distant commercial peoples of the world.

The Americans must become now a modern language-learning people. It is a necessity if we wish to command a large part of the trade of the world among people who do not speak our language.

What I have so hastily sketched on this subject is an indication of what must be brought into our courses of instruction, leaving the further extension of the work to boards of trade and commercial clubs in the business centres of the United States.

A WORD TO THE TEACHERS.

The greatest danger the teacher has to guard against is the misdirection of energy on the part of the pupils. It is now stated on good authority that sixty-four persons are engaged in making a single pair of shoes, and, if one should drop out, the shoes remain unfinished, so far has the sub-division of labor been carried. In teaching, we reverse this by having one teacher watch over the most complicated relations requiring the very clearest perceptions of the rights, duties, and necessities of a house full of children, in which a delicate conscience and a keen sense of justice are called into exercise every hour of the day. Nowhere else is the power of organized effort more fully displayed, and is made to serve a better purpose, the enor-

mous power of teacher and class is focalized on simple points, and illumined and mastered in detail.

A rapid survey convinces the true teacher that ignorance, vice, and wretchedness exist among some classes of the community, and over against these are to be set their opposites, intelligence, good character, sobriety, culture, refinement, and comfort. The contrast is sharp and strong. The former constitute social dynamite, and the latter lead to obedience of law and good citizenship. The main object is to teach the children how to live and how to get the most permanent happiness out of life. How to use life and how to enjoy all its beneficent privileges is the main work of the school. The uplift should always over-balance the down pull.

A courageous teacher is needed to take hold and discipline and instruct children, if the instruction is to last through all time. To be opened-eyed, open-eared, and tireless, are qualities accompanying the real teaching spirit. It is marked by the courage of convictions. It signifies that the teacher is brave enough to be understood and misrepresented—ridiculed, abused, but can afford to wait for time to vindicate both work and motives. All this demands intelligence, will-power or determination, executive ability to carry forward in the best way the work that should be done.

Let it be summed up in the very briefest compass—by saying it demands what is reasonable and necessary.

Preparation in advance is always half the battle, and this brings us back to a safe principle in school management—that is—no school is well managed unless all the work is well planned. Some plans are not worth anything. Teachers, submit your plans to your principal. There is safety in a multitude of counsel. As teachers

we see clearly that the children's physical, moral and intellectual well-being are entrusted to us part of the time. This trust we cannot evade if we would, and we should not if we could. Their relations and ours are bound up in one bundle. Education becomes a progressive movement, and no live teacher can afford to break ranks and

fall out. Those that do so should ask for a discharge.

A school is measured by the character, the life and the working and the obedient spirit that fill it with energy and enthusiasm. Professor Tyndall hated the school he attended when a child, because it had no life in it.—*School and Home Education.*

A PLEA FOR THE BETTER TEACHING OF MANNERS.

BY FLORENCE BELL.

A great deal of time is spent in these days in discussing what is the best equipment for success in life, and those of us who have the heavy responsibility of deciding important issues for another generation pass anxious hours in weighing the comparative merits of such and such branches of learning as preparation for such and such careers. But we contrive to omit completely from that deliberately formulated scheme of instruction the thing that probably matters most—namely, the manner, as well as the manners, in conjunction with which that excellent equipment is going to be used, through which it is going to be interpreted, and on which will almost certainly depend its ultimate success. However well stored your mind may be, however valuable the intellectual wares you may have to offer, it is obvious that, if when calling your fellow man's attention to them you give him a slap in the face at the same time, you will probably not succeed in enlisting his kindly interest in your further achievements. And yet we all know human beings of good parts and of sterling worth who contrive by some unfortunate peculiarity of manner to give us a moral slap in the face every time we meet them, simply because they did not receive any systematic teaching of advanced manners at a time of life when such teaching is most

important. There is plenty of excellent grounding in elementary manners to be had in the nursery and the school-room. The extraordinary fertility of invention with which a child will find ever fresh ways of transgressing every human ordinance, is kept in check and corrected by those about him, who are constantly saying: "Don't do this," "Don't do that," until, insensibly guided by this hand-rail of prohibitive maxim, the child learns in a rough-and-ready way to bear himself more or less well at this stage of his passage through the world. Unfortunately, however, the more grown-up faults of manner do not generally show themselves until the offender has passed the age when they might, without loss to his dignity, fitly have been corrected. It is easy to tell a boy of twelve not to annoy other people by drumming with his feet on the floor during dinner; but it is more difficult to tell him when he is twenty not to make himself offensive by laying down the law. That difficulty of admonition increases as years go on, and it may safely be asserted that the fault of manner which is not cured at twenty-five will still be there at seventy-five. And, alas! in half a century there is time to offend a great many people. Surely it would be quite possible to obviate this danger by timely and systematic instruction. We take

a great deal of trouble to impress on a young child certain quite arbitrary rules of demeanor, which are so constantly reiterated and insisted upon that he gradually takes them as a matter of course, and obeys them automatically for the rest of his life, until it would be utterly impossible for him, arrived at manhood, so to fly in the face of his early training as to tie his table napkin round his neck at a dinner-party, to put his knife into his mouth, or to attack his gravy with a spoon. Why should it not be possible to have a course of second-grade instruction in demeanor, so to speak, which should in its turn be as thoroughly taught as the primary one, as insensibly assimilated and automatically obeyed? But it does not seem to occur to most people that this is necessary. Our usual plan, or rather want of plan, is to furnish the young with some stray, haphazard generalities, and then consider that we have done enough. There are few things more dangerous than the half-truths—necessarily and obviously half-untruths as well—which we thrust into the gaps of our code of conduct in a makeshift fashion, to the exclusion of more complete ordinances. Without a misgiving we proceed to tell young people that “manners maketh man,” or “Good manners proceed from a good heart,” and then expect that they themselves should fill in the details for their own daily guidance. We might as well tell them the formula of the law of gravitation, and then expect them never to tumble down.

And so we let them learn by experience—surely the most tedious and painful form of acquiring knowledge—at their own expense and that of others. We let them fall into one pitfall after another, and scramble out as best they may, scratching themselves and others in the process, and perhaps making enemies of dozens of their fellow-creatures who would otherwise

have been well disposed. We allow them to try by practical experiment whether it is by being pompous, off-hand or patronizing that you can make yourself the most disagreeable, and how long other people will enjoy talking to you if you are looking the while, with ill-concealed inattention, over their shoulder. And yet these are things which it is important to know, these are things which should be deliberately taught, and not left to chance.

It is a platitude to say that, as regards the average mass of human beings, the question of failure or success in life is almost entirely determined by their personality. I am not speaking of those whose transcendent gifts of any kind must inevitably lift them conspicuously above their fellows, even when accompanied by the drag of an unfortunate manner; but of the average mortal, sufficiently well equipped to carry him through successfully, provided that all the other conditions be favorable, and that he be not hindered by quite unnecessary stumbling-blocks that a little trouble and forethought might have removed from his path. An ingenuous investigator put forth, I am told, some time since a circular inquiring into the causes of failure, a copy of which was sent round to all the people who might be supposed to have good reason to know the answer. History does not say what were their feelings on receiving it. But, however plausibly they may have managed to explain why they had not succeeded in doing all they had desired to do, we may surmise that they did not, in nine cases out of ten, put their finger on the real cause—namely, that of having been afflicted with an unlucky manner, or unlucky manners, which had stood persistently in their way. They had taken, no doubt, a very great deal of trouble to learn many things that they thought would be useful to them, but this thing, that matters so very much,

they had left out altogether. Manners may not "pay"—to use that ugly expression—in an examination, perhaps. But, once that, by dint of studying history or the classics, the examination has been passed and the career entered upon, a previous study of manner and manners will be found to pay very well indeed. It may mean that the road of life is made smooth instead of rough; easy instead of difficult; that the traveller is helped along it by the encouragement of others, instead of being hindered by their dislike. Such a study, however, but rarely finds its place as part of an accepted curriculum. During the long and frequent conversations on education with which mothers are wont to beguile the time when they meet one another in society—these conversations occasionally take the form of an alternative and competitive recital of the achievements of each mother's offspring—you will hardly ever hear of manner or manners being taken into account in making educational arrangements for Sybil or Dorothy. On the contrary, you will probably discover that such branches of learning as they are pursuing are being acquired under conditions in which manners will probably be entirely overlooked. Dorothy is learning music abroad, living in a family whose absolute respectability has been carefully inquired into, but where it is not likely that there will be much observation, or much criticism, therefore, of the hundred little departures from grace of bearing into which young people are apt to slide. Sybil, who has a stronger mind, is learning the classics at a high school, under the care of a teacher who, excellent though her certificates of knowledge may be, has absolutely no time to turn her own attention or that of her pupils to minutiae of demeanor. But, if we were even to hint this in veiled terms to a mother who is anxiously planning how she

may do the best in her power for her daughter, she would probably condemn us for attaching importance to the small things of life rather than to the big ones. But it would not be so at all. There is no reason why the earnest study of music or the classics should not be compatible with daily and hourly training in manners as well, if that branch, as well as the others, has been considered in selecting a teacher. Of course we all agree that big things should come before small. Where we are at variance is in deciding which are the big and which are the small; and in my opinion they are not always divided aright. Give a thing a small name and hang it, in fact; and it is obvious that it is, unfortunately, the people who are most entitled to command our respect by the sincerity and diligence of their work and aims who are apt to put aside the deliberate study of the minor graces of life as being the things of the least importance.

It is a matter of regret that the earnest, the high-minded, the elect thinkers and doers of the world, their energies concentrated on loftier aims, should so often, practically, if not explicitly, condemn the "undue" importance—the very word begs the question—given to what they call trifling observances, on the ground that time and energies are thus diverted from the larger issues. I would diffidently point out that none of these small observances are incompatible with lofty aims and earnest thought. On the contrary, I will venture to assert that not only are they compatible with them, but that every form of good and earnest endeavor will be incalculably furthered by attention being paid to certain details of manner which some people consider trifling, although others call them essential. In this case, as in others, the looker on may see most of the game; and the idler standing by may perhaps realize more

clearly than the active and strenuous workers, whose minds are full of wider aspirations, how greatly their possibilities of usefulness may be minimized, how much the influence of their goodness may be weakened, by being presented to the world under a crude and unattractive aspect. It is quite a mistake to think that goodness unadorned adorns the most. It should have as many adornments as possible, in order that the outward graces may correspond to the inward, in order that the impulse of those brought face to face with it may not be one of involuntary recoil, first from the unattractive manner, and then, perhaps unconsciously to themselves, from the admirable virtues that underlie it.

I go, for instance, to visit a noted philanthropist. I am not there on business, so to speak, and she is not professionally called upon to love me ; it is therefore absurd that it should be a factor in my opinion of her real worth that she should forget to pour out my tea, so busy is she haranguing me in a dictatorial and unsmiling manner. I ought to remember that she would hold a cup of water to the lips of a pauper more tenderly than a cup of tea to mine ; I ought to remind myself that the manner so displeasing to me has been acquired when exhorting and instructing others less favored by fortune than I, whose horizon she may thus incalculably have widened. And yet I confess that I find myself wondering if it would not have been possible for her to combine both forms of excellence, and to be deferential, courteous, solicitously hospitable to the well-to-do, as well as helpful and admirable towards the badly off ; and why, when great and noble ideals of conduct were being placed before her, some of the minor graces of demeanor should not as a matter of course have been imparted as well. It is foolish that we should in our intercourse with a fellow-creature be biased by super-

ficial deficiencies, and thus lose sight of essential excellencies. But we are foolish, most of us ; that fact we must accept, however much we should like to think otherwise ; and if we honestly search our experience and our memories, we shall realize how much we are liable to be influenced by things which appear insignificant, we shall recall how slight an incident has sometimes produced an unfavorable impression that is never wholly erased. I remember an instance of this which struck me very vividly. A septuagenarian of dignity and position, Sir X. Y., happened to meet at a public gathering Mr. Z., another magnate of his own standing, full of years and of worth. Mr. Z. was anxious to enlist Sir X.Y.'s interest in a certain scheme, and to obtain his co-operation and pecuniary support. And he would doubtless have succeeded, for Sir X.Y., an urbane old man, albeit with a clear consciousness of his own deserts, was entirely well disposed, and advanced with outstretched hand to greet Mr. Z. with cordiality. But, alas ! at that moment Mr. Z. happened to see some one else by whom his attention was suddenly diverted, and, all unwitting of his crime, he shook hands with Sir X.Y. without looking at him, thereby losing in that one moment of thoughtlessness the good will of his interlocutor, his kindly interest and his possible help. Mr. Z. had almost certainly been taught in his youth always to give his right hand instead of his left when shaking hands with people, and he had probably learnt it so thoroughly that it would never have occurred to him to do anything else. But he has apparently not been taught also to look his interlocutor in the face at the same time, as if it gave him pleasure to meet him. And yet this supplementary ordinance might have been just as easily and thoroughly taught as the first rule, if it had occurred to any one that it was neces-

sary and advisable to do so. We could all of us, probably, cite many instances of the same kind. Mrs. A. and Mr. B. being both interested in a certain school, Mrs. A. went to see Mr. B. to discuss with him some point in the management of it. Suddenly Mr. B. caught sight of an open letter lying on the table in front of him, and he took it up and looked mechanically through it while she spoke. The result was that, although he was in reality more than willing to meet Mrs. A.'s wishes about the school, his manner, quite unintentionally, produced a feeling of unreasoning resentment in her, and she was far more angry with him for agreeing inattentively with her views than she would have been if he had differed from them after listening to her attentively and courteously. All this means an absolutely unnecessary expenditure of energy. Mrs. A., being given the wrong bias at the beginning of the interview, was then annoyed with herself for being annoyed with Mr. B.; the irritation in her manner communicated itself to her, according to a law of nature as definitely ascertained as that of the propagation of the waves in the ether, and the question they had met to discuss was settled with an incalculable amount of friction, which might have been entirely avoided. It arose purely from Mr. B.'s defective training in manners. He had probably been taught as a definite precept of conduct in his youth, obeyed ever since quite unconsciously, without a separate effort of will or intention, to get up when a lady entered his room, and not to sit down with his back to her afterwards; but it would have been well for him if he had also been taught not morally to turn his back upon her by reading a letter while she was speaking to him of something else. This is one of the most exasperating and most prevalent forms of bad manners, and it reappears in an infinite variety of shapes.

Mrs. E. went one day to see Mrs. F., who is renowned for the rare gifts of her mind, heart and intelligence. Mrs. E. was prepared to be impressed by her, to admire her, to be guided by her. But, behold! during the whole of their interview, in which, indeed Mrs. F.'s utterances were all they were expected to be, she entirely impaired the effect of them by looking at herself in the glass all the time she was speaking. And somehow, however unreasonably, that trifling manifestation outweighed in the mind of her hearer all the brilliancy and charm of her talk, and those few moments of intercourse, so eagerly anticipated, remained in the mind of Mrs. E. as an acute disillusion. Mrs. F. would probably much have regretted this result, if she had known it, for even brilliant and superior people, I imagine, would prefer not to produce an impression of disillusion; and in this case, as in most others, it might quite well have been avoided. Mrs. F. ought to have been taught sometimes, as everyone should be taught, not to look at her own reflection at the wrong moment; to be able to pass a stray and unexpected glass without looking in it, and, especially, never to watch herself in one while talking to other people. It is not wicked, of course, to look in the glass at the wrong moment. It is merely absurd. But why should we be even absurd if it can be avoided? There is no reason why people should be either ridiculous or unpleasing in their social relations, if they could only be taught, at an age when they are still teachable, to curb the indiscretions of their outward manifestations; if only an onlooker were allowed on occasion to cry "*Casse cou!*" as in the French game of our youth, when a blunderer whose eyes were bound was about to stumble over some unseen obstacle. I once heard a boy of nineteen, in conversation with a listener of more than twice his age, preface a quotation by saying: "As

was well said by a great and good man, *whose name you may perhaps have heard, . . .*" (The italics are mine.) I longed to cry "*Casse cou*, young man, *casse cou*!" for I felt that in the listener's mind that excellent youth, a devoted son and brother, honest and upright, and inwardly everything that could be desired, was being judged, tried and condemned for ever on account of his condescending manner. For affably to assume that a middle-aged interlocutor might perhaps just have heard the name of a writer with whose works the young gentleman himself was apparently well acquainted was exactly one of the things I would have young people taught to avoid. Indeed, at any age it is a safe rule to follow never to appear to think that a subject of which one is speaking requires explaining, or to assume that a piece of knowledge quite familiar to one's self is not equally so to other people.

Oh, that these things might be taught calmly and urbanely, on general principles! Oh, that it were possible to have a sort of night-school for adults, where certain obvious platitudes concerning the conduct of human intercourse might be learnt, without being either given or received with the evil animus of personal application! What a different aspect they would present to the hearer, and how much more ready he would be to assimilate them! For there is no doubt that the personal bearing of the question makes all the difference. It is quite conceivable that even the most universally accepted and revered of general maxims, such as "Thou shalt not steal," say, or "Waste not, want not," would, if levelled pointedly at one's self, take quite another aspect from that which they present when offered impersonally as part of a general code of morals. This bringing in of the personal element, with its unsatisfactory results, is one of the great drawbacks to the direct

teaching of manners as at present attempted in the family circle, and neutralizes the effect of it just at a stage when such teaching, if undertaken and carried out successfully, would be of inestimable advantage to the learner. It is obvious that this is likely to be so. Parents, even those who are more or less alive to the importance of demeanor, content themselves, while the child is young, in instructing him, as we have said above, with great thoroughness in the elementary rules. That being successfully accomplished, it does not occur to them to consider or discourse upon any wider aspects of the subject, until they suddenly discover one day that, the time of childhood being passed, the manners of the grown-up young man or woman are not all that their fond parents imagined they would be. This deficiency being disagreeably and crudely revealed by some peculiarity or lapse of manners, flying in the face of some idiosyncrasy of the parents' own, is therefore rebuked by them with much more animus than the occasion warrants. For be it said, incidentally—it is a conviction sadly forced upon one as experience ripens—that the parents' standard of their children's wrong-doing is apt to be chiefly a standard of different doing, and it is no wonder that young people should often rebel against so imperfect a code of morals.

This is not the place to enlarge on a subject on which so very much still remains to be said: the best way of bringing about satisfactory relations between parents and children. I will only say that it seems to me that here, too, we are apt to underrate the importance of manner and manners; and that when, a year or two ago, the subject was vigorously discussed in print, the people who were all for having recourse to heroic remedies—latchkeys, Wanderjahre and separate incomes—were going too far afield for the solu-

tion of the problem. I believe that if older people were more careful not to weaken the effect of important and necessary admonitions by a series of daily and hourly minor rebukes, often uncalled for, and arising from irritability as much as from conviction, they would not find themselves nearly so helpless at the moment of essential and inevitable divergence of opinion.

The demeanor of the younger generation is a good deal criticized in these days, and I cannot deny that much of the adverse criticism may be true. I am ready to admit that the manner of some young men—not of all—is conceited, familiar, totally wanting in distinction and in chivalrous courtesy. But this, perhaps, is partly due to the fact that the manner of some young girls—not of all—is characterized by an unpleasing decision, by a want of dignity and reserve, by an ugly sort of slap-dash assurance, and by a total want of delicate half-tones in the atmosphere which surrounds them. I deplore all these regrettable manifestations. I deplore that there should be sons who come down to breakfast with a scowl, and daughters who contradict their mothers; and I sympathize with the grievance, if not with the clamor, of the people who write articles in magazines and newspapers to complain bitterly of the manners of the present day, and especially of the want of deference shown by the young to older people. At the same time, I fancy that statistics would show that these articles are all written by the generation that is offended by that want of deference. Young people do not, as a rule, write articles on the manners of older ones. That, at least, we have so far been spared. But I fancy that if they did, and put forth their views with the candor with which their own manners are criticized, we should find that they, in their turn, were often very unpleasantly affected by our manner. If they were always

addressed courteously and smilingly, never admonished irritably—and of one thing I am quite sure, that the wrong moment to rebuke a fault is when it has just been committed—never silenced, or snubbed, or sneered at, however much their utterances may seem at times to demand such treatment, they would probably in their turn feel inclined to reply more amiably, and we should perhaps not hear of so many despairing discussions and inquiries as to the best way of getting on with one's family. But, instead of this, it is too often taken for granted that in the home circle it is allowable, and even advisable, to dispense with the small adornments of every day courtesy. The influence of such a code on the grace of daily intercourse must necessarily be disastrous. Some children I once knew used, whenever they handed a thing to one another, to do so combatively, with a violent push, which invariably succeeded in infuriating the recipient. The same unpleasing effect is produced when children of a larger growth continue the process, and push their remarks or their arguments home with a momentum which arouses an unreasoning fury in their interlocutor. We all know what it is to argue with such people. It is like trying to write one's opinions on sand-paper instead of on a fair white sheet. It is a crime to allow a human being to grow up with such a manner.

If urbanity were persistently taught and practised in the home there would not be so much to learn, and especially to unlearn, with regard to intercourse with the world at large. People would not then have two manners—one to use in public, and one in private. There would be less self-consciousness and less affectation, for these arise from trying to do a thing of which we are uncertain, to assume a manner which we have imperfectly acquired.

I am not saying, of course, that in every respect the code of behavior

should be the same at home as abroad—that would be absurd; only the difference, it seems to me, should lie in the direction of there being less reserve in the family circle than among strangers, but not less gentleness and courtesy. It would not be in the least a fault of manners, for instance, for a child to fling himself on his mother's lap and throw his arms around her neck, although it would be very ill-mannered if he were to do the same to a visitor. But if he were to bang the door in his mother's face, that would be just as ill-mannered and just as inadmissible as if he had banged it in the face of a stranger. Often I have seen a mother—put to shame by her children's rudeness to a visitor in this respect and others—scold them roundly and unavailingly for continuing to do the ugly thing in public that she had tolerated their doing every day in the family circle. I saw the other day a young girl, gently born and anxiously brought up, coming into a drawing-room at an afternoon party just as a dowager was leaving it. To my amazement, the girl, instead of stepping back and allowing the older woman to pass her, pressed forward with all the impetus of her youthful vigor, so that the departing guest was fairly hurled back into the room, and had to wait to go out until the newcomer had pushed her way past her.

This sort of thing ought not to be possible. And the responsibility for it lies entirely on the shoulders of the parent; for it is evident that if the girl had been taught always to step back and to yield the way to older people, she would have done so on that occasion also, gracefully and as a matter of course, and have thereby made a pleasant impression on the mind of the beholder instead of a distinctly unpleasant one. We are told that in the days of Mrs. Chapone there stood in the courtyard of a boarding-school at Brighton an empty coach, in order

that the young ladies—it was part of their daily course of study—might practise getting in and out of it without showing their ankles. I am not advocating that this practice should continue. I fear that some of the modern pastimes to which young women are addicted necessitate showing a good deal more of their ankles, to put it mildly, than the contemporaries of Mrs. Chapone would willingly have beheld. But I do think it would be an excellent plan, although I fear it might be attended with some practical difficulties, if an empty railway carriage could stand in every courtyard, with a crowd of intending passengers to practise upon. Then people might study the art of getting in quietly, courteously, and in their turn, instead of pushing their way past in order to get in first, declining to make room for other people, and generally indulging in all the numerous forms of bad manners that railway travel seems to induce. Such an exercise would also be found useful as a guide to behavior at drawing-room entertainments and other occasions of the same kind where the object apparently is to secure the best seats at any cost of manners.

How delightful it would be, though perhaps such a project is only a rosy dream, if a class could be formed, just as classes for learning the minuet have been formed, for instruction in demeanor in a drawing-room, showing in practice as well as in theory how to move through it with ease and dignity, how to behave when listening to conversation or joining in it, when listening to music, when playing cards or round games! Demeanor at games is one of the things that the best-behaved fall short in, and unless it be taught in the home, where there are countless opportunities of doing so, it will never be learnt at all. I have been stupefied sometimes, when watching in a country house some draw-

ing-room game of the kind that has to be decided occasionally by the verdict of the players, to see the people that I have been accustomed to consider the most punctiliously polite develop the most surprising acrimoniousness, rudeness and self-assertion. If this is not remedied in childhood it will never be cured. One feature of the excellent work known as the Children's Happy Evening Association is, I am told, that it teaches the art of playing together pleasantly and harmoniously to poor children whose only previous notion of a game had been to cuff or abuse the one who got the better of them. I only wish this training could be extended to other circles, and that some of those very people, perhaps, who have been playing with the children at the East End, could, when back in their own surroundings, have people to play with themselves, and to teach them the art of politeness over a game of cards or of letters. Perhaps some philanthropic dukes and princes could in their turn give up an evening a week for that purpose.

In conclusion, then, what we want is some scheme by which a complete training in demeanor should form part of the regular curriculum. The method of tuition, instead of, as at present, consisting of haphazard scoldings, should consist of a systematic course of instruction in the higher branches of manner or manners, to follow as a matter of course the elementary grounding. It is unreasonable to expect, as we do at the present, that young people arrived at a given stage of existence would know by intuition that which we have never deliberately tried to teach them. Let us help them, therefore, to acquire sometimes certain general maxims of conduct, which should be contained, like other branches of knowledge, in a book compiled for the purpose. I attach great importance to their being in a book. The mere fact of seeing such

maxims—at present handed on to us, if at all, by oral tradition, as if we were Druids, and that in an infinite variety of imperfect forms, according to the transmitter—clearly defined and set down in print would place them in quite another aspect, would increase our confidence in them, and would be of great help to us in carrying them out. And since there is nothing that teaches a thing so thoroughly as trying to impart it to others, the constant use of this handbook will be, probably, of inestimable value to those who teach from it as well to those who learn. It must have come within most people's experience to realize the influence that has been exercised by some home-grown precept of behavior that they have been accustomed to hear from early years. How often you hear a man or woman say, when explaining some course of conduct, "My father and mother used always to say . . .," and then follows some rule of the road of life, which, from its very simplicity, has been useful where more elaborate exhortations have been forgotten. As an instance of the persistent influence of such a precept—although in this case not very successful—I may cite a most estimable member of society, who would have been altogether delightful if his mother had not impressed on him in his youth that it was very rude ever to leave off speaking. Whatever interesting general conversation was going on, therefore—and it is essential to be able on occasion to take part in general conversation as much by appreciative silence as by voluble participation—he never suffered silence to reign in his own little corner, but would continue, during the most enthralling utterances of some distinguished talker, to pour into the ear of his distracted neighbor some tedious commonplace on the weather and the academy, feeling, in consequence of his early training, that even this was better than nothing. This was an

error of judgment, no doubt, on the part of his mother ; but to see the necessity of impressing such precepts at all on the mind of a child is a step in the right direction. And the error of judgment simply shows the necessity of having them formulated with care and discretion. In China, we are told, it is stated in the classics that the laws and rules of ceremony are three hundred and the rules of behavior three thousand. We in this country cannot, I fear, hope for a code so complete, although there is no doubt that we should most of us be the better for a few hundred suggestions on the subject. But, without going even to that length, there is no reason why the laws of behavior should not be as clearly stated as those of golf or cricket, and, presented in this systematic form, as easy to acquire. Most young people know in these days that a golf player must not strike a ball from the tee until the player in front of him is two strokes ahead. That rule, amongst others, is put up on every golf ground. But they do not know, since it is not put up in every drawing-room, that very much the same rule should be observed in conversation. A golf player would not think of standing quite close to the tee from which some one else is driving off, with his club raised to strike before the other has well played. But when he is playing the game of conversation, he thinks nothing of standing impatiently, with his mouth open, while the other player is speaking, obviously not listening, but waiting to speak himself the moment the other shall have done. He obeys the former rule because he has seen and heard it clearly stated as a rule of the game ; he transgresses the latter one because he has not seen or heard it so stated.

These rules, therefore, should be drawn up and tabulated in a convenient form. The manual thus compiled should, when illustrated by examples

and a copious commentary, form a complete code of minor morals, and should serve as a handbook to the gentle art of human intercourse ; holding a place between the manual of etiquette on one side, which deals only with immaterial and fleeting details of usage, and the teachings of a wider morality on the other, dealing with the laws and motives of conduct, and not with their outward manifestations. The ordinary manual of etiquette, as we know it at present—we probably all of us smile at the name—is not a very useful adjunct to demeanor, although it is quite conceivable that it might be more valuable if done upon slightly different lines, and with a little more subtlety of discrimination than usually accompanies it. We have yet to be given a book of the higher etiquette, if I may so call it—a book of precepts for every-day conduct done on simple lines, and giving us, not only the general outline of what I may call our trivial duty to our neighbor, but also suggestions in detail, which would be most specially useful. We all know how sometimes some quite simple suggestion has enabled us to avoid a pitfall, to remove a stumbling block of which we were unable to discover the cause. We know how maddening it is when a piano jingles or a machine sticks for some mysterious reason that we cannot discover, and how intensely grateful we are to the person who shows us where the difficulty lies and enables us to remove it. Just as grateful should we be to the person who, when our manner jingles, so to speak, and causes our friends to avoid playing upon it, can, by proposing a simple expedient, put us on the right lines to remedy the defect. And here let me again plead that these suggestions should not ascend to too lofty an altitude. The unfortunate offender in these matters is apt to be approached on the highest moral level, and given to understand that unless he alters his

whole nature, and gets him a new heart, he cannot hope to mend the error of his ways. This, if I may be forgiven for saying so, is a very needlessly heavy and discouraging line to take, for it is much more difficult to alter one's heart than one's manner.

We will suppose, for example, that you have become conscious of the disheartening fact that you fail to please your neighbor; and a deadly fear seizes you that it may be because you have bored him. If you should seek the best way to remedy this state of things, the advice you would be most likely to receive, either from yourself or other people, would be to the effect that in order to please others you should be unselfish and love your neighbor better than yourself; you should cultivate humility, generosity, charity, and many other virtues. But the result of this will probably be that the unfortunate offender, horribly discouraged at having so vast a field of moral achievement presented to him, and not knowing from which point to approach it, will content himself by endeavoring, as before, to comply in the general with all that the code of morals prescribes, while he continues in detail to annoy his fellow-creatures at every turn, for want of some simple rule of behavior quite easy to carry out.

For instance, we are told as a general maxim that we should sympathize with other people's joys and sorrows; and so ready are we to comply with this precept that we all fondly believe we carry it out. So presumably we do, in intention. The mistake is that we do not always translate this intention sufficiently clearly into words. Indeed, we often convey an impression quite opposed to that of sympathetic benevolence. We should probably none of us acknowledge, or even conceive it to be possible, that we should not be sorry to hear of another person's suffering, whether mental or physical. And

yet, if an instance of it is brought before us in a concrete form, by the sufferer telling us of a bad night, a chronic complaint or the misdoings of an unruly servant, what do we do? Do we seem sorry? Do we concentrate our attention on the misfortunes of the narrator and pour consolation into his ear? Not at all. The moment his grievance has left his lips we instantly reply by a similar grievance of our own, for which we demand his sympathy instead of presenting him ours. I think I am well within the mark in saying that on eighteen out of twenty occasions in which one human being says to another, "I awoke at five this morning," or "I didn't close my eyes until dawn," the other one will reply, "And I woke at four," or "I didn't go to sleep until the sun was shining." Let the observer whose attention has been called to this topic notice, for example, at a breakfast-table in a country house, how, if one person says he has been awakened by a thrush at 3 a.m., he will in one moment be in possession of the experience of the entire table, without one word from any one of comment or sympathy on the experience of others. Indeed, the interested observer will probably be conscious that he has to withhold himself by main force from contributing his own quota to the list. Let one of the simple rules to be contained in our book, then, be, never to say how you have slept yourself when your neighbor tells you what sort of a night he has had. Such a rule will be easily remembered and the habit of complying with it easily acquired. It sounds trivial and absurd, no doubt; but I believe that compliance with a score of such maxims, judiciously chosen and constantly obeyed, would make more difference to each one of us than we are well ready to imagine, and would be of incalculable help in oiling the wheels of daily intercourse.

And to make the machinery of life

run smoothly is surely well worth doing, instead of daily throwing a handful of sand among the wheels; for it would be as easy to pick up again one by one actual grains of sand so thrown, and reassemble them in one's hand, as to remove the effect of a hundred little crudities of manner and manners with which some people are wont to roughen the path of life for themselves and for others. These are the things which stand in the way of success; not only of "worldly" success and advancement, to use the conventional expression in its most grovelling sense, but of that other success, worldly too, perhaps, but in a higher sense, of making the best of this world while we live in it in regard to our relations with our kind. Let us realize that this lies a great deal more within our own hands than we are apt to think. Let us help one another to learn the way of achiev-

ing it. It means taking a good deal of trouble, no doubt; it means a good deal of deliberation and sustained effort, and, at the same time, will depend a good deal more on the small things we do than on the big ones. This thought is not necessarily comforting. It is to many people rather the reverse; for in our hearts we most of us agree with the Eastern proverb, "One great deed is easier than a thousand small ones." But the great opportunity, that we should doubtless so promptly and brilliantly embrace, does not come to us all; and, instead of letting so much potential heroism run to waste, we had better employ it in the countless daily opportunities that we all have of winning* by the veriest trifles—or of putting away from us, as the case may be—the good-will of our fellow-creatures.—*Nineteenth Century*.

THE GENESIS OF GEOMETRY IN THE RACE, AND THE EDUCATION OF THE INDIVIDUAL.

BY BENCHARA BRANFORD.

(Continued from page 300)

Of these professional mathematicians, the first, and one of the most eminent, was Euclid, who systematized on philosophic basis (with substantial additions of his own) the geometrical knowledge slowly evolved during preceding centuries in his famous "Elements"—a text-book for students of philosophy and science in the then newly founded University of Alexandria, but no fit "meat for babes and sucklings." To educationists it is of the first importance to understand that this highly ambiguous word "Elements" in the title (Euclid's "Elements of Geometry") refers not to the rudimentary psychologic elements in the genesis of the *child's* empirical knowledge of the world around as geometrical, but to the *logical* elements

that emerged finally, after centuries of effort, in *mature* minds as the ultimate outcome of a long line of philosophic abstractions (definitions, axioms, theorems, etc.), whereby geometry was fashioned into a perfect science. To clearly understand this is to perceive the monstrous inversion of natural order exhibited by the present traditional method of presenting geometry to schoolboys in the guise of Euclid. It is a continual attempt to balance a cone on its apex!

To any one who has searchingly examined the method of mathematical education obtaining in this country, and is aware of its grave defects, the application of the above historical epitome, under the inspiration of the dominant idea of this essay (the par-

allelism between the education of the race and of the individual), should now be obvious.

However, to evoke great interest and inquiry, I add a few detailed suggestions. Waiving the vexed question as to the mode of genesis of space-perception in infancy, we come to an age, varying in different children, when under appropriate stimulation, by leading questions concerning objects presented to the senses, the child becomes capable of voluntarily directing its attention to a consideration of the *form* of such objects, to the exclusion of other properties (color, etc.). Its stock of space-perceptions (acquired partly by painful, and partly by pleasureable, struggle with its environment) now gradually becomes transmuted, by external stimulus to its own self-activity, into a *descriptive* knowledge of form, a knowledge in which perceptions fuse together into conceptions by being attached to a descriptive name, so fertilizing is a *union* of language with objective embodiments of form—either useless without the other—in rendering clearer, more true and precise, the early intuitions of the child. Here, as throughout education, the teacher needs faith and tact.

While great care must be taken to avoid over-preciseness in the use of terms, thereby incurring the danger of supplying the word without *any* idea, equally harmful is the other extreme, where it is imagined that the mere examination of an object, without attention to the wonderful function of descriptive language, suffices to stimulate the creative activity of the child. The present evil is premature over-elaboration and refinement of the abstract in the formation of knowledge. A recoil from this is apt to land us in the other extreme of clogging the growth of freedom of thought, either by confusing the ideas with the very wealth of the objects to be apprehended, or by failing to create the

final perfect emancipation of the ideas from the particular concrete embodiments from which in the first instance they sprang. This latter extreme in education entails inability, in subsequent years of life, to make effective use of the narrow and particular for the emergence of the comprehensive and general. The aim throughout the mathematical education is the *mastery* of form by sight and hand and thought. It is neither the purely abstract thinker nor the voiceless intuition of the savage we strive to produce, but the consciously disciplined artist, at once thinker and doer.

Gradually the child gains a store of geometrical knowledge that is clear, conscious, rational, and definite *in comparison with* the mental results of his previous experience, but vague, empirical, and indefinite relatively to the mastery we desire him ultimately to obtain. By appropriate stimulus the child will now be incited to a desire for more exact processes, for fuller, clearer knowledge. The idea of *measurement* waxes in importance; simple instruments are made by the child himself—many and fertile will be the ideas thereby originated—and lengths, surfaces, and volumes yield numerical results under the potent influence of simple arithmetical ideas. Tables of such results (no measurements should be wasted; all should contribute to final results), scanned with lively attention, give rise to new demands on arithmetic; general rules for measurements emerge, with a hint or two from the teacher what to look for, and thenceforward the joy of discovery becomes the most effective of educational agents. Geometrical knowledge and skill in simple arithmetical computations grow *pari passu*; this mutual co-operation and assimilation of the two studies is of the highest importance. At present it is entirely neglected; so that from all sides we find teachers of physics, chemistry,

etc., complaining of the utter inability of pupils to *apply* arithmetic. Observe, throughout these final brief remarks, the historical parallel. Let not the teacher fear to introduce ideas that, probably, in his own education, were the last of a long line of tedious symbols and abstractions extending over years, ideas which lie at the very roots of scientific thought. Thus, in the detailed measurements of triangles of varied form, attention will be drawn to the amount of change produced in the lengths of the sides by certain changes of a definite amount in an angle, one side being fixed, and, say, one angle a right angle (an empirical right angle, at present). Here we have the germs of trigonometry without symbolism. Thus is introduced the idea of a variable magnitude and of mutual dependence; indeed, as Herbart ("The A B C of Sense-Perception," 1803) well remarks, all magnitudes should, from the very start, be so taught as to be constantly considered *fluxional*; it is, perhaps, the gravest defects of present methods that the ideas grow fossilized and the imagination fails to expand, *encountering no external stimulus sufficiently powerful to evoke its finest activities*. Rough measurements of the rapidity with which areas and volumes grow by adding to their linear dimensions prepare for the future easy apprehension of a differential coefficient. Plane surfaces rolled into cylinders and cones and other shapes give access to the idea of a ruled surface; such are the surfaces the pupil's pencils are constantly describing in space, as it is handled. And so on. The pith of the matter is thus eloquently described by Herbart, the great German educationist:—"The A B C of sense-perception," he writes (Eckoff's English translation, page 181), "is only the prologue to mathematics, and is really mathematics which, by guiding, in-
citing, moving, and satisfying the

speculative interest, should appear under the form of a work of art. But even this little prologue should constitute its preparations towards the result. Let it be clear even by itself; let it be well grounded; let it appeal to the senses; above all, however, *let it point from the small to the great*. It should make felt everywhere the presence of the great *science* (of mathematics). It ought sometimes to bestow a little gift in its name. By the invisible hand of the great science let it cause a knot to be loosened now and then, or a fault to be rectified. Again, by the omniscience of mathematics, let faults be brought to light, so as to compel their confession by the drawings, the instruments, and the imperfectness of computations. Carelessness and misapprehension especially must not be allowed the slightest hope of slipping through unreprieved.

Noteworthy, as historical parallel, is the attempt of the Greek geometers to square the circle; they attempted to exhaust the circle by means of inscribed and circumscribed polygons with a continually increasing number of sides; here we find the germs of the infinitesimal calculus, crude and empirical at first, subsequently developing into a rigorous deductive process (the method of exhaustion), and, finally, after centuries of laborious thought, perfected by the labors of Newton, Leibnitz, and others. Very obvious is the bearing of this on education.

So far, in the pupil's education, we have assumed that all has been approximate, empirical. That the area of a concrete triangle is practically half the base into the height is, as yet, simply a wide induction. Nevertheless, but little additional stimulus is needed to rapidly convert such empirical facts into scientific theorems; when attention is drawn to the fact that no lines actually visible can be drawn without breadth, and that greater

precision is attainable in our measurements the better our instruments and the finer drawn our figures, the mind is fit for the discovery of definitions and scientific theorems—such as are presented in Euclid. Here, again, lies danger of an extreme. Assuredly it is a fundamental error, in school education, even when the ideas of definitions and theorems have grown familiar, to have that complete divorce between the concrete and abstract which now almost universally prevails. While in no whit deviating from a strictly rigorous use of certain terms and syllogistically stated proofs of certain theorems, a philosophical teacher will continuously make effective use of the fact that, at every stage of scientific mastery by the pupil, there looms certain material of knowledge which can best be first assimilated *empirically*, and should only gradually be subjected to the stricter demands of exact, abstract reasoning.

Turning to history, we find that never without detriment to pure science has the abstract been long divorced from the concrete. Modern educational experience amply exhibits the pernicious effects where teaching is restricted to the purely abstract. It is not long ago since Euclid was *memorized by rote*! The fact that all measurement of nature is necessarily approximate, never exact, is a truth that appears to have been almost completely ignored in mathematical education, fundamentally relevant to the matter as the truth obviously stands. Approximations, concrete applications of pure theory, should occupy throughout the educational curriculum a fundamental place. It is clearly possible to present such practical problems that the very effort to attain a solution leads to the demand for still higher and fuller theoretical knowledge. Let us here employ to the fullest that principle of all mastery: "Studies perfect nature, and are perfected by experience."

If this criticism is valid, then we soon become convinced that the isolation that now exists between geometry, arithmetic, algebra, etc., is radically vicious. "Arithmetic is one thing, algebra another, geometry a third, and so on. We learn them from different books at different hours. We are ignorant of their relation and mutual helpfulness." Such, doubtless, is the attitude of the average school youth when attention is directed to the question. Yet, what is the worth of all these studies unless every conception, finding its appropriate place in the scheme of all the rest of our knowledge, helps to a more clear, unified mastery of facts? *Juxtaposition of subjects in the curriculum does not imply harmonious assimilation of them by the mind of the pupil.* Without any resulting confusion, all these branches of mathematical study can be commingled and become materially helpful, so that the mind sees its mathematical conceptions and processes in the light of a beautiful, well-ordered, and powerful *whole*, instead of a thing of shreds and patches.

The present extraordinary insistence, in elementary teaching, upon a comparatively few ideas, their tedious elaboration and fixation by mere rote—work without stimulus to the evolution of imaginative self-activity, critical taste and inventiveness—all ultimately lead to inability to grasp new ideas when they are encountered suddenly in the higher branches, clothed gorgeously in strange symbolism. The remedy for this is to keep the invention ever at work, and the assimilative function fresh and vigorous by constantly bringing down for discussion and simple application into the very elements those fruitful and great *ideas* that certainly demand ultimately for deeper treatment a special symbolism for themselves, but which are relatively simple in inception when divested of such symbolism. The plotting of curves, modelling of surfaces, with the

concomitant ideas of analytical geometry (plane and solid), the fundamental ideas of the calculus (differential and integral) through approximations, the plentiful use of axioms (not restricting the science to a minimum of such, with resulting tediousness and great loss of power)—all such conceptions it is desirable to create as speedily as the interest is sure to be awakened in them.

Here, again, the teacher must be inspired with knowledge, not only of these higher branches, but of their gradual historical evolution. Seeds of thought must be planted long before they grow to perfection and ripeness. Above all must he have faith in the intelligence of his pupil and the great future in store for it under the guidance and stimulus of sympathetic teaching.

Of course, in introducing these ideas of mathematics so much earlier than usual, we must not make the mistake (which would be identical with that at present perpetrated in commencing geometrical education with abstract Euclid) of attempting to present them in completed abstract form—an attempt certain to result in dire failure; but we must give simply the germ of each idea in particular concrete clothes; perception by the senses should precede the pure resulting abstraction. Thus should the abstract constantly alternate with the

concrete; the empirical *periodically* precede the scientific on ever higher and more difficult planes of inquiry.

As regards the attitude of the pupil, this should be one of disciplined self-activity and invention, the motives being partly the desire of applying his knowledge to interesting concrete problems, and partly (so far as distinguishable from the other) his own curiosity about the wonderful properties and development of these abstract creations of the intellect.

Finally, looking back on modern educational experience, we see mathematics employed in the education of one generation in the way of dogmatic rules of thumb, an extreme of concrete presentation; in another generation we get the other extreme, where the presentation is so purely abstract at the very outset that Euclid is generally learned by rote! The genesis of geometrical knowledge in the race clearly indicates the most efficient order of development for the individual—*incessant action and reaction between abstract thought and concrete measurement.*

Moreover, only thus can due scope be given for the exhibition of those powerful varieties in intellect and character amongst the pupils upon the due development of which depends, obviously, the progress of the race. Here, finally, we note again the suggestiveness of our parallel for educationists.

“The defects of Aristotle’s view of man’s destiny are the defects of all that is Greek. They are two: (1) Its ideal is intellectual and æsthetic—a coordinate, harmonious whole, whereof the individual is but a part; not moral or religious—a self-surrender of the individual to the supreme will; consequently (2) it does not provide for every human being, as such, but only for a small, select number, the fruit of the whole. Its ethics are institutional, not personal, and, indeed, the

Greek never arrived at a distant conception of personality, that being possible only through the moral consciousness, which is its core. It seeks to find happiness in a correlation and balancing of individual selves, not in the independent conformity of each self to a supreme self. Hence it was that, with all its marvellous grasp and manly prudence, the ideal of Aristotle proved powerless to restore the moral unity of man, until it was absorbed in a higher.”—*Thos. Davidson’s Aristotle.*

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND TEACHERS' CONVENTION.

BY INSPECTOR G. J. McCORMAC.

The Nineteenth Annual Convention of the Teachers' Association of Prince Edward Island was held in the Y.M.C. A. Hall, Charlottetown, on Thursday and Friday, 6th and 7th October. There were 200 teachers in attendance. The president of the Association, Principal Campbell, of Summerside High School, presided at all the meetings. On Thursday forenoon the Association had the pleasure of visiting the Charlottetown Kindergarten, conducted by Miss Sayre. Here two hours were spent very profitably, as well as pleasantly, and all left very favorably impressed with the benefits of the Kindergarten as a part of our school system.

At the afternoon session a well written philosophical paper, entitled "The Human Soul in Education," was read by Mr. J. A. Ready, B.A. In it he described the several faculties of the soul, and claimed that the aim of true education must be the deepening of spiritual life, so that the soul of man shall bless the earth by its presence and work, and ultimately return to the bosom of the God who gave it birth. Prof. Hickman gave a very interesting talk on "Nature Studies," which was much appreciated. He asked for a more general recognition of the value of nature studies as an educational force, and a more frequent use of such studies, particularly in the rural schools. The study of nature is the best and highest foundation for morality, and a preparation for the revealed truth that comes to the child later in life. Froebel says "the spirit of God rests in nature, lives and reigns in nature, is expressed in nature, is communicated by nature, is developed and cultivated by nature."

On Thursday evening a public meeting was held which was largely attend-

ed. F. P. Taylor, M.D., a member of the City School Board, presided, and introduced as the first speaker His Worship Mayor Warburton, who in behalf of the city extended a warm and cordial welcome to the teachers. He urged upon them to endeavor to form a Maritime Teachers' Association, where a wider interchange of ideas would be effected, and suggestions, mutually beneficial, would be given. He hoped the next mayor of Charlottetown would have the honor of presiding over a Maritime Teachers' Association. President Campbell replied, thanking the mayor for his very hearty welcome. His address was concise and pointed. He showed up some of the defects of our school system—the want of normal training for teachers, and the want of sufficient remuneration for teachers. The salaries paid our teachers are so small that our best teachers regard the profession as an admirable one—to get out of as quickly as possible. Good schools, and progression, he said, poor schools and stagnation—these are as closely allied as cause and effect. The country with poor schools must soon scramble for the crumbs that fall from the table of progressive countries. Just as a woodman can make progress without sharpening his axe, or a farmer without cultivating his corn, so can a country advance without improving its educational system. The teacher makes the school. He is the soul, the heart, the life of the school, and in the school are laid the foundations of our country, be they sound or unsound. Mr. G. N. Hay, Ph.D., editor of *The Educational Review*, St. John, supported Mayor Warburton's remarks anent a Maritime Teachers' Association, and then read an admirable paper on "The Modern Aspects of Education."

Prof. Hickman spoke briefly on the "School System of Nova Scotia."

Chief Superintendent McLeod was the last speaker. He spoke on the teacher as a force in the formation of character, and pointed out the great influence which the teachers have either for good or evil.

Besides the addresses the audience was favored with readings, recitations, and vocal solos.

At Friday's forenoon session Inspector McCormac read a paper entitled "The Spirit of the Teacher." Mr. Hay gave a very instructive lesson on "Botany," and Mr. H. J. Palmer, Q.C., made a very appropriate speech on "Composition." Mr. Palmer said he was greatly pleased with the remarkable progress made in teaching the higher branches, but thought that more time and attention should be devoted to composition. Students go through college, and yet have a very inadequate grasp of composition.

At the afternoon session Principal Seaman moved a resolution strongly censuring the government for the re-

peal of the supplementary clause of the Public Schools' Act. The clause referred to read as follows: "Every teacher shall be entitled to receive from the Provincial treasury an amount, in addition to his statutory or regulated salary, equal to any amount raised for his support by the district by the local assessment upon such district not exceeding twenty-five dollars." (This section was repealed at the last session of the Provincial Legislature.) Quite a lively discussion followed. Premier Farquharson and Mr. D. A. McKinnon, M.P.P., were present, and spoke in response to an invitation from the President. After a resolution in favor of withdrawing the resolution under discussion was voted down, the motion was carried by a standing vote, only two opposing it out of the large number of teachers present. The election of officers was the last work of perhaps the most successful and most beneficial convention ever held by the teachers of the Island Province.

St. Georges, P.E.I., Oct. 18, 1898.

"THE OLD ORDER CHANGETH."

It is not very long since ex-President Cleveland, in the course of an address to the students at Princeton University, took occasion to comment on the fact that American politics do not attract the most highly educated and most cultivated men. "It is," he said, "exceedingly unfortunate that politics should be regarded in any quarter as an unclean thing, to be avoided by those claiming to be educated or respectable. I would have those sent out by our universities and colleges, not only the counsellors of their fellow-countrymen, but the tribunes of the people, fully appreciating every condition that presses upon their daily life, sympathetic in every untoward

situation, quick and earnest in every effort to advance their happiness and welfare, and prompt and sturdy in the defence of all their rights." We commend these statesmanlike words to students who are just now gathering at our Canadian universities, we presume, with an aspiration to become nation builders. It may be asked, however, what the universities are doing towards the direct fulfilment of this the end of their existence, namely, the preparing of men to be the leaders of the masses. The United States possesses about four hundred universities or colleges with university powers, and the annual output of men, more or less fairly educated, is enormous;

yet it appears to affect only in a very slight degree the situation deprecated by the President.

In British politics, university men predominate among the legislators, many of whom, like Burke, Brougham, Earl Derby, Gladstone, the Marquis of Salisbury and Curzon, have been equally distinguished for statesmanship and scholarship. It is true that there is no official recognition of the science of politics at either Oxford or Cambridge, but unofficially, among the students themselves by means of their debating societies and political associations, training in practical economics of no mean order is obtainable, and which, in many instances, has paved the way to success in the highest arena. It has been aptly, if somewhat paradoxically, said that the universities of Oxford and Cambridge are aristocratic associations with democratic proclivities, and it is certain, in modern times at least, that nowhere has ability a better field or snobbery less encouragement. No doubt things have much changed since the days of Chaucer's Clerk of Oxenford, who

... was lever han at his beddes hed,
A twenty bokes, clothed in black or red,
Of Aristotle, and his philosophie,
Than robes riche, or fidel, or sautrie,

but, on the other hand, at neither of the great universities would a "nouveau riche" find it possible to provide a newspaper paragraph like the following: "Morley Hall is the finest of the new Harvard dormitories, and the young man's rooms will be the most magnificent in the college. He planned the decorations himself. The living apartment consists of a study and a

large alcove. These two rooms are finished in sage oak. The woodwork alone will cost a thousand dollars. It is in the old English style. The carved panelling reaches five feet high. Then come two feet of green Japanese cloth, and then woodwork which reaches the ceiling. The floors are of hardwood. A large sage oak window seat has been built in the study and the alcove has a magnificent oak bookcase built in the wall. The furnishings are to be in the old English style, rather in the dark order, and sombre. This will be relieved by a hallway entrance which is finished in crimson."

The founder of the family of the young man who departs so far from democratic simplicity is said among his various avocations to have at no far back date followed that of hawking oysters. A nominal university education, obtained amid such Sybaritic surroundings, is not the most admirable method of raising up "tribunes of the people, fully appreciating every condition that presses upon daily life." If sumptuary laws are justifiable anywhere it is surely in institutions of learning, where rich and poor should meet on equal footing, and where intellectual ability and character alone should confer eminence. But far better than regulation is the public spirit which happily prevails in our Canadian institutions which within university precincts frowns down all class distinctions, whether of inherited culture or of mere wealth, and which gives little or no encouragement to the invidious fellowships of secret societies. The development of patriotic citizenship and of devotion to the cause of humanity should be the guiding principle of all educational organization.

LIFE IS STRUGGLE.

To wear out heart and nerves and brain
 And give oneself a world of pain ;
 Be eager, angry, fierce, and hot,
 Imperious, supple— God knows what,
 For what's all one to have or not ;
 O false, unwise, absurd, and vain !
 For 'tis not joy, it is not gain,
 It is not in itself a bliss,
 Only it is precisely this
 That keeps us all alive.

To say we truly feel the pain,
 And quite are sinking with the strain ;
 Entirely, simply, undeceived,
 Believe and say we ne'er believed
 The object, e'en were it achieved,
 A thing we e'er had cared to keep ;
 With heart and soul to hold it cheap,
 And then to go and try it again ;
 O, 'tis not joy, and 'tis not bliss,
 Only it is precisely this
 That keeps us still alive.

—Arthur Hugh Clough.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Deliver not the tasks of might
 To weakness, neither hide the ray
 From those, not blind, who wait for day,
 Tho' sitting girt with doubtful light.

" That from Discussion's lips may fall
 With Life, that working strongly, binds—
 Set in all lights by many minds,
 So close the interests of all.

Orchards are known to have what are called their "off-seasons," and so may teachers' conventions, and perhaps one of the most noticeable of such phenomena was the convention of teachers lately held in Montreal ; at least, so we gather from the somewhat meagre newspaper reports of the meetings, and the congratulatory motions which had to be passed at its close to give the affair an appearance of success. This is not likely to occur at the next annual gathering, when the presence of Dr. Robins in the chair will, no doubt, give the proceedings an *éclat* which that gentleman's experience as a presiding officer and as an educationist of the higher gifts is sure to bring to the office. When it is said that the proceedings were not much of a success, it must not be supposed that there were no important points of educational interest to the teachers of the Province of Quebec discussed. In some of the public addresses, as in Professor Clark Murray's paper on child study, or "The Child Problem," and in Dr. Field's investigation of "School Eyesight," there were set before the teachers the necessities which ought to drive them, if they would be successful, back to first principles ;

while in Miss Edey's paper on "The Country School and its Work," in Mr. H. A. Honeyman's enumeration of the "Distracting Elements in School Life," in Mr. E. N. Brown's paper on "The Spelling Question," in Miss Margaret Ross's presentation of how to teach "Elementary Geography," in Dr. Adams' illustrated lecture on "Physical Geography," in Mr. George A. Jordan's address on the "Functions of the Local Association," and in Mr. Arthy's paper on "Arithmetic," there were presented many phases of school work interspersed with wholesome pedagogic suggestions. The reports from the various committees and sub-committees were received and adopted, and the reforms indicated by them are likely to be inaugurated by the new executive. The proceedings were not barren of interest, but they were as near being so, it is said, as the friends of the Association would care to see the proceedings of any subsequent convention.

The elections, as usual, were guided by a new method of procedure. In connection with the organization and government of the Quebec Association, it seems that a new procedure is

invented once a year, and its constitution, if these inventions continue, is all but sure to become an ethical curiosity worthy of examination even by such a high authority as Sir John Bourinot himself. If the Association is losing its prestige, there are some gentlemen connected with it who are bound not to lose their prestige as long as its executive holds together; and the teachers themselves have now lost for the most part their interest in the results of the election, refusing to vote, and only laughing at those who succeed in selecting the officers of the Association by methods which even the Rev. Mr. Taylor is now inclined to think savor a little of unfairness. When it is said that the executive is selected rather than elected, it must not be thought that the executive is a poor executive as it at present stands. It is perhaps as strong an executive as could be elected, and will no doubt do excellent work. And the teachers will simply have to be patient until they see what new election procedure an active member's foresight will produce for them at the next election.

The subject of civics is not altogether neglected in our schools, and the above reference to one of our many teachers' associations leads us to the consideration of the example that is in most cases better than precept. The question of how an executive should be elected is more important than the *personnel* of the executive, and the tampering with the constitution of an association for the sake of producing certain results is always followed by a disturbance to the good feeling in any society. It would perhaps be too much to say that the inventor of a new electioneering method is a disturber of the peace, but his inventions generally lead to the estimate of the unthinking that whatever issue has a majority in its favor must necessarily be right. And this is surely not

the ethics our teachers propose to teach in school. A measure can only be right in itself, and no vote, however cunningly collated, can make the wrong way of doing things the right way of doing things. A vote too often only makes the worse appear the better reason, and we all know how our politicians can handle it as such even in a contest for or against prohibition. It is a pity, however, that the politician's canvassings and counter-canvassings should have any part in our various social organizations for the promotion of brotherly kindness and professional advancement. The politician has special methods of his own, as we are so often told, and he is a daring writer who would venture to interfere with them, or counsel a reformation. But they are none the less wrong in principle, and have never done anything for the good of society. They are not even the "evil done that good may come." And in our social organizations and professional guilds all indirect methods of maturing public opinion should be discountenanced as at least dishonorable. What has the right or wrong kind of philanthropy to do with a vote as an argument in its favor? The right kind of philanthropy is the true philanthropy, and no majority of votes can make it a pseudo-philanthropy. And are our teachers' associations not philanthropic institutions? If the teacher would therefore gain a practical knowledge of the civics he would teach, he must gain it in his associations with his fellows, in the social organizations to which he belongs, and not from the indirect methods of the politicians or of those who answer all argument by collating a vote or by organizing a caucus to vote as their leaders dictate.

The ethical reformer has almost as hard a road to travel as the policeman. The wrong-doer has never much love for the detective, nor even for his

would-be friend, the patient, unbiassed adviser, and, in referring to this question of practical civics in the general, it is likely enough that we will be misunderstood. But we have no side to take in this matter save the right side. A teacher must first learn to vote before he can train young folks the right way to vote and understand the iniquity of the canvass as practised by many of our politicians. The promptings of the canvasser are as iniquitous as the promptings in the class-room. The pupil must think before he speaks if he would speak sense, and the voter must think for himself before he can vote conscientiously and become a sound factor in the forming of a wholesome public opinion in a society or in a constituency. And this is a lesson which every teacher should be able to teach from the standpoint of his personal integrity, and when we have said this we have said all that we are going to say at present about any of our provincial associations, or of the indirect methods practised by some of their members when election time comes round. THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY is not a provincial periodical seeking to mix itself up in local differences of opinion. It is interested in the educational affairs of Montreal and the Province of Quebec, as it is interested in the educational affairs of Halifax and Nova Scotia, of Toronto and Ontario, or of any other city or province in the Dominion. In mentioning individuals in our pages we have not confined ourselves merely to laudatory remarks, and do not intend ever to do so. Some people think that laudation is their due whenever they take part in public affairs, and can command a vote behind which to hide away their lack of logic and self-seeking. But those who think so must not extend their way of thinking to THE EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, which will suffer no personal aggrandizement to interfere with

its eager desire to advance the interests of our teachers, and protect them in their rights. Through their honest expression of opinion in our correspondence columns and elsewhere it is our purpose to promote the general educational advancement of the whole country, and we invite the co-operation of all our teachers in the enterprise we have undertaken in their behalf.

The death of the Rev. Dr. Cochrane, of Brantford, brings to a close the active career of one who, though not an educationist in the stricter meaning of that term, was a philanthropist who had always the kindest sympathy with educational movements in Brantford, and in connection with Presbyterian College work. His end was sudden in the midst of his activities, preparing, as he was, to attend a meeting of the Executive of the Pan-Presbyterian Council at St. Louis, and to further mature his favorite schemes in favor of the Home Mission. His monument remains to Brantford and to Canada in the Brantford Young Ladies' College, which he was instrumental in building. Though a Scotsman by birth, he was a true Canadian in feeling, as many of his writings show.

There were in the paper lately read by Dr. E. C. Fields many observations which are of primary importance in connection with school work, and ought to be made known to teachers, parents, and all interested in the proper upbringing of children. The teaching profession, as he said, were waking up to their responsibility, and a certain proportion of the laity were doing the same. It was an undoubted fact that visual defects had increased during the last few years. It was evident to anyone who had given the matter attention that many cases were congenital, while others were acquired. But, be it either one or the other, it could be readily understood that an

existing defect might be aggravated, and a greater defect produced under certain conditions. The only point, however, in which his audience was interested was how far the schools were responsible for this, and what means might be adopted to lessen the evil. Other countries had recognized this fact—England, Germany, and certain of the States—and they had appointed expert inspectors, who regularly examined the children's eyes, and if these were found defective the parents were compelled to have them properly fitted with glasses. In San Francisco 33 per cent of the pupils in the schools had defective eyes; in New York the percentage was about the same; in Ontario, judging from his own experience, it was about one-quarter per cent., and in Montreal Mr. Parsons, of the Victoria school, who had examined the eyes of the kindergarten children, ranging from three to six years of age, had furnished him with data showing that those who had defective eyesight were one quarter per cent., and as you went into the higher classes it was found that the percentage slightly increased. Teachers in other schools here had informed him that the same state of affairs existed. The percentage was not so large in rural districts as in the larger cities and towns. The reason was obvious. Their conditions were entirely different; they enjoyed more healthy outdoor exercise, and their curriculum of study was not so heavy as a rule. Taking the whole, he thought an average of 30 per cent. was not too high an estimate of this defect. As regarded the causes with which they were principally concerned, there were two or three important ones; defective and improperly arranged light, bad print used in school books, and another, which, owing to the extended curriculum could not be altogether prevented, the long-continued study and close application required in order

to keep up with the class. The first two could be remedied by the authorities, and the evils of the latter might be relieved to a great extent by judicious means. The consensus of opinion was that the light should be made to fall on the left hand side of the pupils, and on one side only; but, if light must be admitted from both sides, it should not be east and west, but rather north and south. The windows should be as high as possible, the nearer the ceiling the better, and by no means should there be a light directly in front of the pupils. By means of diagrams Dr. Fields explained what is commonly known as longsight and shortsight, and he also referred to the means that might be adopted for detecting these defects. He strongly urged that, when it was noticed that a child had any difficulty in learning, it be not put down to stupidity or want of application, without first ascertaining if there was any defect in vision; and, if so, recommend the parent to have the matter attended to. By so doing teachers would have done their duty, and the true responsibility would rest elsewhere.

The report presented by Dr. Harper at the Convention of Teachers held last month in Montreal indicates the progress that is being made in the matter of improved professional training in the McGill Normal School, and recommends, first, that two short terms be provided for in that institution until all the teachers employed in the Protestant elementary schools of Quebec are trained teachers; second, that a period be fixed upon by the authorities when only trained teachers may be employed in such schools; and, third, that every facility, including pecuniary assistance, be granted to teachers who have taught for a given period of years in the province to take a course of training at the Normal School.

The McGill University is fast becoming our foremost investigating body, Professor Cox, of the Science Faculty, having led the way in the matter of the X rays, and the limit of their powers in locating foreign matter in things animate and inanimate. Now it is Dr. Walker, of the Chemistry Department, who has undertaken to make public the properties of argon and the manner in which other constituent gases of the atmosphere have lately been discovered by Professor Ramsay, of Great Britain. The following is taken from a report of a meeting lately held of the Science Society of Students, at which Dr. Walker explained the process of the marvellous discoveries made by Lord Rayleigh and Prof. Ramsay. Dr. Walker is now a member of the Faculty of Science of McGill, having lately been appointed Professor of Chemistry and as a colleague of Sir William Dawson's distinguished son-in-law, Dr. Harrington. "I have two reasons," Dr. Walker is reported as having said, "for choosing my subject for to-night as I have done, firstly, because it follows out the line of an address delivered in Canada a few months ago by Prof. Ramsay, and, secondly, because it is a purely chemical subject, and one of the greatest discoveries since Davy discovered the alkali metals. To properly understand the subject, it will be necessary to say a few words about the now well-known substance, argon. Lord Rayleigh prepared nitrogen from the atmosphere, and then from chemical sources. The result showed a slight discrepancy. The nitrogen obtained from the atmosphere was found to be denser than that obtained from chemical sources. Ramsay concluded that the nitrogen of the air must contain some unknown substance. They then set about to separate the nitrogen from this unknown substance. A vast amount of nitrogen was prepared from the atmosphere. As nitrogen readily

combines with magnesium, at red heat, this atmospheric nitrogen was passed over magnesium turnings, heated to redness, till the gas ceased to contract in volume. The residual gas was found to have a density of 20, and it showed an entirely new spectrum. Owing to its great chemical inactivity, the discoverer called it argon. This gas had been accidentally prepared by Cavendish eighty years before, but he did not notice that it was different from nitrogen, and paid no attention to it.

"Shortly afterwards Ramsay discovered the new gaseous elements, helium and argon, in some rare minerals, and from the position of argon and helium in the periodic system of the elements, he felt convinced that some other gases of a similar character must exist somewhere in nature. Accordingly these about the examination of all sorts of minerals, mineral waters, and the atmosphere, and finally found it in the argon of the atmosphere. Owing to the inactivity of argon, it was useless to try to investigate it by chemical means, so he and his coadjutor, Mr. Travers, adopted the method known as practical distillation."

The latest gas discovered has been named "Neon" and, during the process of its discovery, two other substances were discovered in the residue, namely, metargon and crypton. The former has the same density as argon, but it is a white solid at the low temperature of boiling air, and shows an entirely different spectrum. Professor Schuster had pointed out that its spectrum is in many respects similar to what is known to physicists as the "carbon" spectrum, and suggests that metargon is really a carbon compound. But, as Prof. Ramsay and Mr. Travers have shown, if so, it must be an entirely new form of carbon compound, since it resists all attempts that have yet been made to

oxidize it to carbonic acid. The rate of its specific heats also show that it is of an elementary nature, and not a compound. These latter experiments were nearly all performed within a fortnight, and I must confess it was one of the most exciting fortnights I ever spent. Really four new elements in a fortnight is too great a rate of increase. Of the nature and scope of these new elements little has yet been determined, but the discoverers hope to soon be able to give more information on the subject, on which they are still working.

There are two institutions in Montreal which are leaving their impress on the city school system, taking rank as model schools in a community where the idea of inviting the public to examine for themselves the inner and practical organization of the school-room has not been very much encouraged. The teacher in training requires a well-organized model school in which to do his practising under careful supervision, but the public also requires a model school in which to learn to distinguish a right method of teaching from a pernicious method, and it is needless to say that every public school should be such a model school, open at all times to the public. Visiting day is an excellent idea, and should be fostered in city and country, even in face of the prejudice that too much may be made of it or too little. But there need be no halting at visiting day in providing for the model school which has its doors always open

to the public, and the High School of Montreal and Westmount Academy are examples of such model schools. No visitor is admitted to the classrooms of these institutions without permission, it is true, but no citizen ever goes away from a visit to either of them having the feeling that his visiting has been out of place, or that he has, by his presence, interrupted anybody's work. The principals of these institutions are gentlemen of progressive ideas, and through the co-operation of their efficient colleagues are gradually raising their schools to that degree of efficiency which has made the Boston schools the centre of attraction in America.

Our correspondent, "Montreal Teacher," informs us now and again how educational affairs are prospering in the commercial metropolis, and it would be well if more of our readers would follow his example. The identity of a correspondent cannot but have an interest attached to it, and this interest becomes all the more intense perhaps when the correspondence indulged in has for its object the giving of the information that is a protection to those who would do right and do it openly. This identity, however, is a sacred thing in the eyes of the editor, and our correspondents may safely make use of *THE EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY* as if it were their own property, when the use they make of it is a wise one and in the public interest.

CURRENT EVENTS.

When some of our cousins in the United States of America began talking about a monument to General Montgomery, who was killed in the attempt to take Quebec on the last night of 1775, scarcely any one in Canada took the matter seriously.

The proposal appeared to Canadians so supremely improper that they never imagined that any sane person would entertain such an absurd idea. We heartily agree with the following :

The U.E. Loyalists, at their meeting at the Normal School yesterday after-

noon, entered a vigorous protest against the proposal to erect a statue in Quebec to General Montgomery. The matter was brought before them by Mrs. Forsyth Grant, of the Women's Canadian Historical Society of Toronto, which, at its last meeting, by a standing vote, and amid much enthusiasm, passed the following resolution :

Resolved, That whereas an "international monument is proposed to be erected in the public square at Quebec," we do hereby enter a protest against such act being allowed, and do further appoint a committee to confer with the other historical societies in the matter.

The following is the protest : That the said General Richard Montgomery, having served under Major-General Wolfe at the taking of Quebec, on September 13, 1759, did later use the knowledge then obtained, and while serving under the British flag, to lead an invading army into Canada, and fell, assaulting Quebec. Therefore, to permit the erection of an "international monument," or one of any character, to do honor to the invader, would be at once an insult to the memory of the men who defended it and to the feelings of their loyal descendants, and would also in the future confuse the minds of the children as to the duty they owe to their country. Also, it is without precedent that a people, or a city, or a Government should permit the erection of a monument within its borders to glorify an invader. And your petitioners would further suggest that, if it be desired to honor the heroes of that period of our history, the city of Quebec should be enriched with a monument to Sir Guy Carleton, who defended her, or to the gallant Beaujeu, who raised a force to drive out the invading army, and whose loyalty and devotion remain unrecognized. We, therefore, pray your Government to

take this matter into your consideration, in order that the necessary steps may be taken to prevent what would be an outrage on the patriotic feelings of your people.

The reading of the above was followed by the passing of the following resolution, moved by Mrs. Forsyth Grant, seconded by Mr. Land : That this association do endorse the resolution passed by the Women's Canadian Historical Society with reference to the proposed erection of a monument to Montgomery ; that a committee be ordered to draw up a similar protest, and that the secretary be instructed to send a copy of it to the other U. E. Loyalists' Associations in Canada, and request similar action.

A curious case has occurred in England in which a schoolmaster was taken into court by an irate parent over the absence from school of an idle boy with an excuse from the parent. There is not a teacher in the land who has not had dealings with the school-room specimen. The boy was punished for his conduct in face of the excuse, and this is the report of the case as given in the *Journal of Education* :

"The Sheldon v. Gull case has received a fresh development since we commented on it two months ago. As the magistrate had refused to grant a summons, Mr. Gull was sued in the county court for damages. It will be remembered that the boy was absent from school with his father's permission. When he returned and presented his note of excuse he was caned—not for absence without leave, but because his absence brought before the headmaster's notice the fact that he was idle and neglected his work. This was Mr. Gull's case, and the judge summed up in support of it ; but the jury decided that the boy 'was caned for his absence, and not for his dullness,' and awarded nominal damages.

The case is of interest to schoolmasters, and it may seem monstrous to them that a jury should be asked to decide the grounds on which the punishment is given. A parent may punish his child 'reasonably,' and his power is admitted to be handed over to the schoolmaster. But, if the child breaks a school rule under his parent's orders, the only admissible penalty seems to be dismissal. We must add that the punishment was not stated to be excessive."

The popularity-prize craze has assumed a new form. This time it is not the most popular policeman or electric car conductor or clergyman or school teacher that is wanted, but the most popular school-boy, and it is a member of parliament of an English county and a mayor of an English city that is after him. These gentlemen have been distributing watches and watch-chains throughout their constituencies to the most popular boys whom their *discerning* neighbors may select, and the editor of the *Journal of Education* is rightly up in arms against the practice: A boy should grow up, as he says, gentle, kind, and helpful to his schoolfellows; but, when we think of the burden that is put upon the half dozen boys who are in the running for the prize, when we realize the development of their self-consciousness and the temptations to hypocrisy, we can only hope that our headmasters will be strong enough to refuse absolutely and entirely the offer of such prizes.

Like the Hon. Dr. Ross, when he compared the convention of Montreal Teachers to the Legislature at the moment preceding a division, Mr. Maughan lately said, in an address delivered at a dinner given to Sir Langdon Boynton by the Adelaide Teachers' Association:

"As a whole the teachers were not of political tendencies, partly because they were too much taken up with little parliaments of their own, where the Government had long tenures of office, and where the Opposition had no chance of moving a successful want of confidence motion. (Laughter.) But they were no less patriotic for that, and they were proud of their Parliament for the position it had taken in passing Liberal legislation, and for the dignity and intelligence with which its deliberations were conducted."

The people of England are growing anxious over the technical school question, and have been sending deputations to Germany and also to America to note the various aspects of the technical school there. Mr. Reynolds, the deputy sent to America, has been to McGill and Toronto, and others of the large cities of the continent, and from what he says it is America, rather than Germany, which will successfully compete with this country for supremacy in the engineering industry. Mr. Reynolds shows that in the United States and Canada the training given in technical schools is held in the highest esteem by employers. "In visiting various important works, it was gratifying to observe the esteem in which the engineering colleges are held by the best class of employers. Many of their most important officials come from these colleges, and preference, other qualifications being fulfilled, is given to such technically trained candidates. In short, it would appear that the exact investigations carried on in the great laboratories of the chief engineering colleges, and the importance of the results derived therefrom, have led to a recognition of their value and necessity in the workshop itself, with the result that those who have been trained in them are receiving corresponding appreciation."

In the course of his address on the "Child-Mind," Dr. Murray claimed, according to *The Herald* report, that education was after all the education of the will, which was dependent on the intelligence and feeling with which it was associated. Will divorced from these was merely blind, unfeeling force, exhibited in the harshness of nature of many men. The highest education was closely connected with the highest emotion, religious feeling, and therefore he felt deep sympathy with those who sought for religious instruction in schools. In dealing with difficulties with which teachers had to cope, Dr. Murray pointed out that they had to begin with directing muscular action into right channels. The tendency of nervous and muscular vibrations was to widely diffuse themselves, as shown, for example, in the lolling tongue with which many children followed the movements of their pen. Hence more energy was used up than was required, and the teacher had to try to prevent this. The direction of the will depended on the feelings of pain or pleasure, and the teacher who could arouse that attraction in study known as interest had attained a great deal. The emotional feeling varied in different persons from stoicism to mere sentimentalism. The teacher had to develop the emotional nature where it was weak and repress it where it was strong. This led to the question: What form of educational discipline best developed the will? Many educationists fell into the error of supposing that there was a royal road to learning. The idea that anything worth learning could be learned without dogged, continual endeavor was a delusion and a snare. If learning could be obtained without labor it would be valueless, because it would fail to develop the intellectual and emotional energies, the energies of the will which formed the great aim of education. The discipline needed was

one which would develop the habit of voluntary action, of instantly saying yes or no when duty prompted or wrong tempted. The training of sustained attention was important, and of accurate observation and reasoning. What did present educational systems supply in the way of this necessary discipline? It must be said that these systems gave far too exclusive prominence to the development of the intelligence, to the attainment of mere knowledge; that there was almost no specific discipline adopted for the purpose of training will power, at least the disciplines with that object in view were not so numerous and prominent in educational systems as those which aimed at giving knowledge and training the intellectual powers. Public schools offered a valuable discipline in the training of punctuality, which should also be enforced at home; and the schooling of oneself to like a duty should not be overlooked. The wreck of lives was nearly always due to the failure to early develop the will, the victims of tragedies being unable to say "no" or to say "yes" at the right moment.

The Hon. Boucher de la Bruere, Superintendent of Public Instruction, has just issued a circular, addressed to heads of universities, colleges, normal schools, high schools, academies and other higher educational institutions. Portion of the circular is as follows:

"I have the honor to announce to you that the Province of Quebec will take part in the Paris Universal Exhibition of 1900, and the Government desires that the Department of Education should adopt measures suitable for instructing the world as to our school system and its working.

"I believe it my duty, then, to request the aid of all educational establishments. We are only one school year from the time at which exhibits must be forwarded. I have no doubt

of your cordial support in assuring the success of this exhibit, in view of the importance of appearing with advantage in this universal competition, and of making known the working of our school law and the results achieved by our educational institutions.

"I have only to recall the great exhibitions of Paris, London and Chicago to be satisfied that by combined effort we may in 1900 prove ourselves worthy of the flattering marks already bestowed upon us, and win new encouragement to promote the progress of instruction among us.

"The higher educational establishments, I think, should review their history, state how their teaching staff is made up, and give the number of pupils attending. They will also mention their branch establishments, even those outside the province. Photographs of the buildings, interior and exterior, might be included among the exhibits.

"I need not remark that it is important to have our works judged in their *ensemble*. Our higher educational houses will collect specimens illustrating the excellence of their courses of study, such as philosophic dissertations, scientific compositions, Greek and Latin theses, literary productions, etc.

"I shall ask the convents and other girls' schools to furnish specimens of pupils' needle-work, embroidery, etc."

The death of Dr. William Kingsford, the historian of Canada, brings pause to a life-work which coming generations of Canadians may study with more keenness than the Canadians of to-day. His ten volumes of Canadian history form a crowning glory to a long career of usefulness in other spheres of labor than the literary, though the literary spirit must have been present in his work. George Eliot used to say that the possibility of living a long life without leaving a

footprint behind as a permanent memorial was always an injury to the man or woman who had within them the throbbing of genius. The faithful worker in behalf of posterity must feel at times the same agony, and it is pleasant to think that Dr. Kingsford, whose literary industry and faithfulness have long been recognized, had for years the satisfaction that his work would live after him. To the teacher Dr. Kingsford has been a true friend—to the teacher of the present and the past—and it may help us to appreciate his industry all the more, to read of his earlier career as an unobtrusive citizen, laboring for his bread and butter, when public recognition had not yet come to him. It is a long and weary road to the goal of fame, and even yet Dr. Kingsford's work has escaped the attention of Canadian readers in the hurry and bustle of our modern ways of looking at literary talent. Kingsford's History is an example of how little of the pecuniary reward there is in the task of the Canadian literary man. It was not without difficulty that a publisher could be found to take hold of his great work, and the number of subscribers, even after full recognition has been given by the critics to the excellence of his volumes, is phenomenally small. When will Canada turn the corner in this matter of literary appreciation of her sons' and daughters' literary gifts? Britain was once called a nation of shopkeepers, but Canada may well be called a nation of newspaper readers, and publishers and authors may write as they may about copyright and the legislative evils that lie in the way of a Canadian author earning an honest livelihood through the efforts of his pen, but as long as the present literary apathy of the people prevails, the author will have to look for "ways and means" in a direction away from the publishers' till. The following is an account of Dr. Kingsford's career,

which may be found in fuller form in any of the volumes of biographies lately published :

William Kingsford, C.E., LL.D., was born in London, England, December, 1819. He was educated in his native place and came to Canada with the 1st Dragoon Guards. Retiring from the service in 1841 he entered the employ of the city surveyor, Montreal, and was connected with that department for some years. At this period of his life he went to the United States where he assisted in the construction of the Hudson River Railway and went subsequently to Panama, where he was engaged in laying the line of the Panama Railway. Returning to Canada he was employed to make surveys on various parts of the Grand Trunk line, after which he held for a short time the position of chief engineer of the city of Toronto, and again entered the employ of the Grand

Trunk Railway. After a period of six years spent in Europe, during which time his professional services were largely in demand, he returned to Canada and was again employed by the Canadian Government. In 1880 he entered the services of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and was connected with this company for some time. Possessed of strong literary ability he has written much on historical subjects, and is the author of an extensive "History of Canada," from the time of its early settlement up till 1841, the date of the union of Upper and Lower Canada. Among his other works are "The Canadian Canals, their History and Cost"; "The Earliest Bibliography of Canada"; and "Impressions of the West and South." He received the degree of LL.D. from Queen's and Dalhousie Universities, and was a Fellow of the Royal Society of Canada.

MAGAZINE AND BOOK REVIEWS.

Many biographies in the past have appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly*. Of late years distinguished people have contributed the story of their own lives, and of these few could be more interesting than The Autobiography of a Revolutionist, by Prince Kropotkin. It has also been announced that Mrs. Julia Ward Howe's Reminiscences will be begun in the November number. Prof. William James, of Harvard, will shortly contribute a series of six papers dealing with the relation of Psychology to the Art and Practice of Teaching.

The October *Book Buyer* contains, along with other interesting matter, "Some Recollections of Aubrey Beardsley," by Penrhyn Stanlaws. Mr. Stanlaws appears to be one of the very few people who ever saw Beardsley at work. There is much that is pathetic in the recollection of that

singular artist's short and apparently almost futile life.

With a certain amount of gratitude one finds the October *Century* almost free from the late war. Chester Bailey Fernald, it is true, contributes a tale of war correspondents, entitled "The Yellow Burgee," which might be supposed to have wrecked his future if war correspondents are as powerful as they appear to be in the United States; but the Oxford and Cambridge race is as far from the tendency of conflict as possible. Prof. Wheeler, of Cornell, is to begin a life of Alexander the Great in the November issue.

Littell's Living Age for October 15th contains a most interesting review of Helbeck of Bannisdale, from a Catholic standpoint, taken from the *Nineteenth Century*. It surely will be a matter of regret to many of the readers of this weekly that the page of

poetry where, in the past, so many excellent things were reprinted, has been discontinued.

The Ladies' Home Journal for November contains the opening chapters of Mary E. Wilkins' new serial, "The Jamesons in the Country." "The Girls of Camp Arcady" is the name of another continued story which deals with the adventures of four girls who earn their living and share a flat in New York. A Polish Fantasy gives an account of the early life of Paderewski.

The Copp, Clark Company has recently issued an attractive edition of "John Splendid," a stirring tale of the highlands of Scotland, by Neil Munro. This story, which last year ran as a serial in *Blackwood's Magazine*, is a romantic and wholesome piece of literature. It belongs to the same class as Mr. MacLennan's "Spanish John," and appeals particularly to those who belong to a Celtic derivation. From the same firm we have this month received: "Stories of the Maple Land; Tales of the Early Days of Canada, for Children," by Katherine A. Young. "The Primary Public School Arithmetic," by J. A. McLellan, A.M., and A. F. Ames, A.B. And "High School Cadet Drill Manual," arranged by W. Bennett Munro. "Poet's Walk; an Introduction to English Poetry," chosen and arranged by Mowbray Morris; Macmillan & Co., London. This volume is issued in the Golden Treasury series, and merits a place beside the excellent and long-known "Golden Treasury of Songs and Lyrics." There are a number of selections which do not appear in the songs and lyrics, notably those from Sir Francis Hastings Doyle, whose "Return of the

Guards," July 9th, 1856, might well have been written for to-day, and compels enthusiasm.

Books received from Macmillan & Company through their Toronto agents, The Copp, Clark Company:

"Cæsar's Gallic War, VI," edited by C. Calbeck; "Exercises on the First Book of Euclid," by William Weeks; "The First Oration of Cicero Against Catilina," edited by G. H. Hall; "Historical English and Derivation," by J. C. Nesfield.

Books received from the University Press, Cambridge:

"The Æneid of Virgil, Book I," edited by A. Sidgwick; "Cicero in Catilinam," edited by J. H. Flather; "John Bunyan by Macaulay," edited by Arthur D. Innes; "Milton's Comus and Lycidas," edited by A. W. Verity; "Gray's Ode on the Spring and The Bard," edited by W. C. Tooev.

Books received from Ginn & Co. Boston:

"The Elements of Physics," by A. P. Gage; "Essentials of Psychology," by C. S. Buell; "Goethe's Egmont," edited by Max Winkler; "The Alcestis of Euripides," edited by H. W. Hayley; "Seed-Travellers," by C. M. Weed.

Books received from The American Book Company, New York:

"Selections from the works of Richter," edited by G. S. Collins; "Elements of Grammar and Composition," by E. O. Lyte; "Elementary English," by E. O. Lyte.

William Briggs, Toronto:

"An Elementary Treatise on Arithmetic," by Wilson Taylor.

The Editor Publishing Company, Cincinnati:

"Meadowhurst Children and Other Tales," by E. L. MacNaughton.

ALGEBRA. FORM III., 1898.

C. P. MUCKLE, B.A.

$$1. (a) \frac{z}{\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{y}} + \frac{y}{1 - \frac{y}{x}} - \frac{x}{1 - \frac{x}{y}} = \frac{xyz}{y-x} + \frac{xy}{x-y} - \frac{xy}{y-x}$$

$$= \frac{xyz}{y-x} - \frac{2xy}{y-x} = \frac{xy(z-2)}{y-x} \text{ or } \frac{xy(2-z)}{x-y}.$$

$$(b) \frac{1}{1-x} + \frac{1}{1+x} + \frac{2}{1+x^2} + \frac{4}{1+x^4} = \frac{2}{1-x^2} + \frac{2}{1+x^2} + \frac{4}{1+x^4}$$

$$= \frac{4}{1-x^4} + \frac{4}{1+x^4} = \frac{8}{(1-x^4)(1+x^4)} = \frac{8}{(1-x^8)}.$$

2. Since $x^2 = x-1$, $x^2 - x + 1 = 0$; $\therefore x^3 + 1 = 0$, being = to $(x+1)(x^2 - x + 1)$.
Now, $x^6 - 3x^5 + 2x^4 - x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 2 = x^6 - 1 - 3x^5 - 3x^2 + 2x^4 + 2x - x^3 - 1$
 $= (x^3 - 1)(x^3 + 1) - 3x^2(x^3 + 1) + 2x(x^3 + 1) - (x^3 + 1) = 0.$

Or, substituting $x^6 = (x^2)^3 = x - 1^3$, etc., reduce the expression.

$$3. (a) (a^2 + b^2 - c^2)^2 - 4(ab)^2 = (a^2 + b^2 - c^2 + 2ab)(a^2 + b^2 - c^2 - 2ab)$$

$$= (a+b+c)(a+b-c)(a-b+c)(a-b-c).$$

$$(b) x^5 + x^3 - x^2 - 1 = x^3(x^2 + 1) - (x^2 + 1) = (x^2 + 1)(x^3 - 1)$$

$$= (x + \sqrt{-1})(x - \sqrt{-1})(x - 1)(x^2 + x + 1)$$

$$= (x + \sqrt{-1})(x - \sqrt{-1})(x - 1)\left(x + \frac{1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2}\right)\left(x + \frac{1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2}\right)$$

$$(c) 2x^2 - y^2 - 2z^2 + 3yz - xy = (2x + y - z)(x - y + 2z).$$

$$4. i^3 = i \cdot i^2 = -i; i^6 = i \cdot i^4 = +i, \text{ etc.}$$

$\therefore (1+i)(1+i^3) \dots$ to n factors $= (1+i)(1-i)(1+i)(1-i) \dots$ to n factors

$$= \left\{ (1+i)(1-i) \right\}^{\frac{n}{2}} = 2^{\frac{n}{2}} = (\sqrt{2})^n.$$

5. Assuming that $(+a) \times (+b)$ is $+ab$, or $+a$ taken b times additively, then

$(-a) \times (+b)$ must be equal $(-a)$ taken b times additively

$= (-a) + (-a) + (-a) \dots$ to b terms $= b(-a) = -ab$

And $(-a) \times (-b)$ must be $(-a)$ taken b times subtractively or $-(-a) - (-a) \dots$ to b terms, or $-(-ab) = +ab$.

6. (a) and (b) Book-work.

$$(c) \begin{array}{c} I \left| \begin{array}{c} I + 6z + 10z^2 - 2z^3 - 15z^4 \\ I + 5z + z^2 - 13z^3 + 6z^4 \\ I \left(\begin{array}{c} I + 9z + 11z^2 - 21z^3 \\ I + 2z - 3z^2 \end{array} \right) \\ \hline 7z + 14z^2 - 21z^3 \\ 7z + 14z^2 - 21z^3 \end{array} \right. \end{array} \begin{array}{c} I + 5z + z^2 - 13z^3 + 6z^4 \\ I + 9z + 11z^2 - 21z^3 \\ \hline -4z - 10z^2 + 8z^3 + 6z^4 \\ -4z - 36z^2 - 44z^3 + 84z^4 \\ \hline 26z^2(I + 2z - 3z^2) \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \\ -4z \end{array}$$

$$7. \text{ Let } 7x = A's \text{ money, } 8x = B's \text{ money. } \therefore \frac{7x + 18}{8x + 18} = \frac{17}{19}$$

$$x(7 \cdot 19 - 8 \cdot 17) = 18 \cdot 17 - 19 \cdot 18 = 18(17 - 19) = -36$$

$$-3x = -36, x = 12; 7x = 84 = A's \text{ money, } 8x = 96 = B's \text{ money.}$$

ASTRONOMICAL NOTES.

The discovery of a new member of the asteroid group is becoming quite a common occurrence, but the last announcement of the kind calls attention, rather to a new planet than simply to another of the bodies revolving in the zone between Mars and Jupiter. The institution known as the Urania, of Berlin, has the honor this time, and Herr Witt the special credit of having first observed the stranger. He allowed a whole month to pass before making his discovery public, for the reason that the observations, upon analysis, gave an orbit which seemed unlikely to be the correct one; it appeared to lie actually within the orbit of Mars, though not wholly. In terms of the astronomical unit, the earth's mean distance, the stranger when at perihelion is 1.13 from the sun, and at aphelion is 1.79. The latter is farther away than the aphelion of Mars' orbit. This discovery will be of immense value to the mathematical astronomer, when the path of the new planet is accurately marked out, and will lead to closer determination of the sun's mean distance than has hitherto been thought possible.

Mars is now in good position for observation, rising about 10 o'clock, and a conspicuous object among the stars of Cancer. The disc of the planet towards the end of November is 12 seconds in diameter; this is larger than Mercury ever appears to us, and when it is remembered that drawings of Mercury have been made on many occasions we are prepared to hear that Mars has already, this season, become a subject for the artist at the telescope. We do not possess any photographs of the surface of Mars which could be said to aid us in the study of the planet. This field is open indeed to all.

Jupiter having now passed to the west of the sun, is morning star, and towards the end of the month is far enough out of the sun's rays to permit of the satellites being observed. Saturn is now too close to the sun for

observation. Venus also is rapidly approaching the sun, crossing the direct line on November 29th, about 7 degrees south. On this occasion Venus crosses the meridian twice within the same astronomical day. Mercury reaches the greatest elongation east of the sun on December 3rd, but, being far south in declination, will not be favorably placed for observation.

Observers of the stellar heavens will note that we now have the Pleiades group culminating on the meridian about midnight, and it is not to be forgotten that the feast of "All Souls," our now almost prosaic Hallowe'en, is associated with this phenomenon. It is a long step from matter-of-fact gala times of the present day to ancient festivals. Yet the connection is there, and as there appears to be no race without some tradition in connection with the Pleiades, it is open for explanation why this is so. A very fanciful idea is that the "lost Atlantis" was submerged when the Pleiades culminated at midnight, and hence the group would always mark the date of the anniversary.

Observers of the moon may note that on the evening of November 28th there will be an opportunity to observe most satisfactorily the great ring plains on the west limb. About a day past the full the lunar plain Petavius presents a beautiful appearance, the convex floor lit up by the sun, while the western wall is partly broken. It is a beautiful object for the pencil at the telescope. THOS. LINDSAY.

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THE CANADA

EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY

DECEMBER, 1898.

THE ONTARIO EDUC'L SYSTEM AND VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS.

LAWRENCE BALDWIN

Barrister, etc.

The Ontario Public School system has in it much to be commended ; but while it is so generally lauded surely we cannot be so blind as to see no defects in it, or so provincial in our conceit as to ignore the practical work and experience of other countries. Before considering any definite proposal which might strengthen the Ontario Public School system and increase its influence, let us view some aspects of its practical work. That it is mechanical, no one can deny. It aims at turning out every child educated in a Public School in accordance with a general average. It takes no account of one child physically strong and another physically weak, one mentally strong and another mentally weak. It cannot concern itself about the future calling or position of its pupils, except as limited to each school section as a unit, and then only governed by the law of general average. So mechanical has this system become that no one, I venture to say, takes the least interest in the election of trustees as educationalists. The restrictions in our system reducing the whole to a machine have, I believe, deprived the parent of any interest he might otherwise have in the schools, and he cares less who controls them. We never hear of a trustee seeking election on any policy looking to the betterment of the system, or the work accomplished there-

by. In common decency the aspiring trustee parades, at the time, economy and efficiency as the grounds for his election, and then, alas ! that is the last we hear even of these.

So mechanical is the system that no parent can take any personal interest in the education of his children. What interest can he take when he has no choice? But to the school of his section his children must go whether he likes it or not, whether this school is suitable for his children or not. This has a very serious effect upon the relationship of parent to child. It is acknowledged that the responsibilities resting on a parent towards his child have the best possible influence with him for good. And in so far as the State assumes to lift this responsibility from the shoulders of the parent an injury is done to the community. Again, how is it that the average length of service of a Public School teacher is so short, and that so many use the position simply as a stepping stone to other walks in life? Is it not that the limitations and restrictions in our system give no opportunity for the capable teacher to put forth his best efforts and to reap his due reward? Like the school trustee passing on to aldermanic and parliamentary honors the Public School teacher forsakes his calling as a teacher, and takes to some other more lucrative profession, all the public money spent upon his train-

ing in the Normal School and School of Pedagogy being lost to the State. Notwithstanding all this some refer to the Ontario system as a liberal and efficient educational system. How can it be liberal and effective, I ask, when it is so restricted both in quantity and quality? Even the practical results of its own restricted sphere of work are at times severely criticized, and acknowledged to be an inadequate return for the cost of maintenance.

John Stuart Mill says: "That the whole or any large portion of the education of the people should be in State hands, I go as far as any one in deprecating; all that has been said of the importance of individuality of character and diversity in opinions and modes of conduct involves, as of the same unspeakable importance, diversity of education. An education established and controlled by the State should only exist, if it exist at all, as one among many competing experiments, carried on for the purpose of example and stimulus to keep the other up to a certain standard of excellence."

Now, will the affiliation of Voluntary Schools, with our present system, accomplish any good? Let us consider, for a moment, what we mean by the affiliation of Voluntary Schools. At the present time we have in existence many private schools which, according to their efficiency, or special inducements, attract the interest of parents who see in such schools an opportunity for securing some instruction, or some accomplishment, not obtainable in our Public Schools. At present these schools stand apart from our State system of education, and it naturally follows that, in order to have sufficient income to maintain efficient work in them, the standard of the fees must be made so high as to be prohibitive to the average citizen, who already has very probably paid heavy taxes towards the support of the Public School.

These private schools can thus alone be patronized by the wealthy class; while the less fortunate in this world's goods are forced to limit their children's education to the restricted, illiberal, and possibly inefficient Public School of his section. In the affiliation of Voluntary Schools we contemplate the recognition by the State of all the splendid work accomplished by private enterprise under certain conditions. The usual conditions required in Voluntary Schools before receiving recognition by the State are properly qualified teachers, a proper standard of efficiency in the secular instruction pertaining to elementary education, and public inspection. When the Voluntary School has satisfied the State as to the efficiency of its work, it is recognized as a State School, and entitled to a grant from the public funds in proportion to the number of children educated therein.

In order that I may be more explicit, let me here set out a definite scheme for the recognition of Voluntary Schools as part of the State system of education.

NATIONAL SCHOOL SYSTEM RECOGNIZING VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS.

"TAXATION."

1. All ratepayers to contribute to a common building "fund" necessary to meet the cost of providing accommodation for all Public School children not attending Voluntary Schools.

2. All ratepayers to contribute to a common educational "fund" necessary (with the Government grant) to meet the cost of imparting elementary secular instruction to all the children attending Public Schools (including Voluntary Schools).

"VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS."

3. Any school conducted in a suitable building provided at the cost of its supporters and (a) having an aver-

age attendance of at least thirty pupils maintaining a standard of efficiency in secular subjects and (b) using the Public School text-books and (c) employing as teachers only those holding Public School certificates, to be entitled, on the written application of at least twenty heads of families resident in the school district, to have such Voluntary School placed on the list of Public Schools subject to the same inspection, and to share in such educational fund according to the average attendance, as in the case of other Public Schools.

INSTRUCTION IN SPECIAL SUBJECTS.

5. In Voluntary Schools special classical, scientific, commercial, mechanical, religious, or other instruction may be imparted to the pupils. Provided, however, that it in no way interferes with the efficiency of the work of imparting the elementary instruction required by the State curriculum.

Let me explain by example the working out of such Voluntary School system. Let us assume that we have a locality with one Public School building with ten class-rooms, accommodating 500 children; and that this building is accessible to all who require to make use of such school. This school may be sufficient for a time to accommodate all the children of that locality; but as the population increases a greater demand will be made on the school than it can meet. The trustees are then forced to the expedient of procuring a new site or renting rooms elsewhere. Let us assume that over and above the cost of providing accommodation it costs on an average \$10 per annum to instruct each child attending the Public School. In the above example this would amount to \$5,000. Now, in order to meet a demand for increased accommodation, should the trustees decide to erect a new school building, they must first expend

a large amount on the site and the erection of buildings, and then continue to expend at the same rate \$10 per annum for each child. Let us assume that increased accommodation is required for 200 children. Let us also assume, for instance, that there are two religious bodies in the community having suitable buildings under their control, each capable of accommodating 100 children; together they would meet the total demand for increased accommodation. All the children would be provided for, and the municipality saved the expense of procuring a site and erecting buildings.

Let us consider one of these Voluntary Schools in working order fulfilling all requirements as to elementary secular instruction. This Voluntary School would be entitled to an annual grant of \$1,000, no more than the cost of imparting the same secular instruction to the same number of children in the Public School. To maintain all the work desired in such Voluntary School it may be necessary to raise additional funds by voluntary subscriptions, or fees from those in sympathy with such school, or availing themselves of its privileges.

Now, what reasons are there for hoping that Voluntary Schools will receive such support? First, the fact that one can obtain in them for his or her children religious instruction. Secondly, the desire in educating children to obtain something more than we have a right to obtain in Public Schools at public expense. If these reasons do not exist in any one section of the community no demand will there be made for the introduction of Voluntary Schools and the Public Schools will accomplish the work as at present.

Let us assume that the municipal grant of \$1,000 is supplemented by a voluntary grant of a like amount. We would then have \$2,000 to expend on the education of 100 children instead of only \$1,000. In this way parents

would be able to procure a better education for their children, and the State reap an advantage in having even a portion of the community more liberally educated; and at a smaller cost to the State than under existing circumstances. By the introduction of Voluntary Schools, and their affiliation with our present Public School system, parents could associate themselves together in order to secure for their children, by united effort, an education, not alone embracing the elementary secular instruction required by the State, but also other, and possibly better, secular work. Voluntary Schools would afford opportunities to religious bodies to secure for the children of their own communion the religious instruction they desire, dogmatic or undogmatic as they please. "Financially it seems to me to be the height of folly," writes the Duke of Argyle, "to discourage the greatest of all agencies—zeal for religious truth—in persuading men to support efficient Voluntary Schools in which they take an earnest interest. I should be prepared to deal equally with all voluntary societies, and all churches in paying them for their work as tested by such methods as may be deemed best." That Voluntary Schools would save our municipalities a large amount now expended on sites and buildings is shown by practical experience in other countries. They will certainly be found to be a means by which large sums may be saved in any city or town in Ontario where the population is dense enough to justify their introduction.

The taxation necessary for the maintenance of the present system of Public Schools is now recognized to be a heavy burden on the community. An item of considerable importance in the expense is the amount required for the purchase of school sites and the erection of school buildings. For example, in Toronto we find that the average

cost for each child for accommodation alone is about \$50. That is to say, in a school accommodating 500 children, the site and buildings have cost the municipality \$25,000. Now, assuming that we should have only ten Voluntary Schools in Toronto, each accommodating 100 children, in the aggregate this would represent 1,000 children, or what is equivalent to two ordinary schools. The city might be saved in this way the direct expenditure of \$50,000. At the same time the secular instruction would be at least as efficient in the Voluntary Schools as in the Public Schools, and the cost to the municipality of imparting the same secular instruction no greater than in the Public Schools. As a matter of fact, Voluntary Schools must be more economical to the municipality, because, while no public money will be expended on them unless the work they accomplish is up to the required standard, in Public Schools the money will be expended no matter how inefficient the work in any one of them may be. Further, Voluntary Schools will enable an association of parents to do more for their children than can be done in an ordinary Public School. In other words, they will enable parents to build upon the elementary work of the Public School, and to add to this, at their own cost, other instruction, and possibly more thorough secular instruction, without adding any additional burden to the taxpayer.

Another matter worthy of consideration is the fear of the spread of contagious diseases. This danger is five times greater in one school of 500 children than in five schools of 100 children each; in addition, the loss when the school has to be closed on this account would be proportionately less in the case of Voluntary Schools, where isolation would be more complete and more easily obtained.

One great objection brought against

the Voluntary Schools in England, where such schools are the National Schools of the country, is that in localities where only one school exists and that a National School, namely a Voluntary School under the control and management of the Church of England, Non Conformists must send their children to it, while at the same time they conscientiously disapprove of the religious instruction imparted therein. No such objection could be made in Ontario. The present Public School system is well established so far as it goes. There would be in every district at least one Public School common to all. Voluntary Schools would only be introduced where the population is sufficient to justify such a step. Their introduction can in no way injure the efficiency and work done in the Public School, nor trample on the rights of any; while it is admitted by practical educationalists that they would vastly improve the general education of the country.

The Ontario Public School system is surely needlessly restrictive. By the affiliation of Voluntary Schools we would introduce just that flexibility that is needed to make the system thoroughly effective and national in character. Their introduction would arouse parents to a greater realization of their responsibilities in the matter of the education of their children. Besides they would promote the interest of the teachers, and induce the capable instructor to continue his devotion to so important a calling because he would know that more than average ability in the teacher might command more than an average recompense. They would also hold out to him the possibility of enlarging his sphere of usefulness beyond the restricted curriculum of the Common School.

If I am wrong in principle or practice in my advocacy of the scheme

which I have proposed I am anxious to discover the fallacy of my position; but when I find the principle of Voluntary Schools supported by "Methodists," "Presbyterians," "Anglicans," "Romans," "Undenominationalists" and others, and in fact acknowledged in Ontario to some extent in our State University with Voluntary Theological Colleges affiliated, and again in such schools as Upper Canada College, the Model and High Schools, and Collegiate Institutes I ask why cannot the principle be applied generally to our Public School system which can be done by the affiliation of Voluntary Schools.

I have referred to the religious bodies in the practical working out of the Voluntary School scheme, because they have a recognized place in our midst, and further because they already have buildings attached to their places of worship which might readily be made available for school purposes, and in fact some of these are now used as Public Schools. The fact that these buildings, many of them quite costly, now stand idle for six days of the week makes it quite plain that in them there is a considerable financial loss which might be avoided were it possible to make use of them for educational purposes.

Some fear that in Voluntary Schools we see the State undertaking to impart the religious instruction peculiar to one or other religious communion. But it is really nothing of the kind. On the contrary it is the Voluntary School which, while imparting the religious or other special instruction desired by parents, undertakes to impart for the State the elementary secular instruction of the Public Schools, and this under State inspection and by teachers authorized by the State. The cost of maintaining any special instruction outside the curriculum of the Public School will be met voluntarily by the supporters of such schools.

Others fear that the introduction of any such Voluntary School scheme means the breaking up of our Public School system. In England and elsewhere Board Schools have grown in the face of well-established Voluntary Schools, and it is perfectly right that for those who are enamored of an educational system without religious or any other special instruction, they should have schools to their liking, provided that in them there is no lack of efficiency in the elementary secular instruction required by the State. How, then, will the affiliation of Voluntary Schools break up the Ontario schools? If it is true that private enterprise could in this way surpass the work and efficiency of the present Public School, and by so doing attract the children of the community to such an extent as to injure the Public Schools, the sooner we remodel our system the better. If our present Public Schools cannot stand competition, what value are they to the public? I believe that, as a matter of fact, the affiliation of Voluntary Schools will extend the influence and work of our State system of education, and make the system thoroughly national and complete.

The introduction of Voluntary Schools needs no revolution in our present system. It is, as I have stated, but the extension of the same system, and the harmonizing of individual effort with what is already well established.

PUBLIC SCHOOL LEAVING EXAMINATION.

PRIN. E. H. ELLIOTT, Maple Public School, Ont.

That the P. S. Leaving Examination has been much in evidence of late is to state the matter very mildly. That it has so developed in magnitude that it has become one of the burning questions connected with the weal of the Public School is not to put the matter too forcibly. If it is true that ninety-five per cent. of all in attendance at School belong to the Public School, it is therefore a truism to assert that all influences and conditions which tend to increase or diminish the efficiency of the Public School are of supreme importance.

It was noticed a few years ago that the Entrance Examination was evidently the limit in education, so far as a large proportion of the school population was concerned, so to retain this large proportion in our Public Schools another year, not to send to the High Schools better equipped pupils, the P.S. Leaving Examination was launched upon the already over-crowded Public

schools and the suffering teachers. However, the great majority of teachers, feeling it to be lamentable that parents would allow their children to end their school-days with the Entrance Examination when many of them would make, if not brilliant students, at least men and women of influence in their community, lent their sympathy and support to this worthy scheme.

Unfortunately this examination has been sadly abused and diverted from the primary object it had in view, and, instead of its being taken only by those pupils who did not intend taking a High School course, we find that in many places it has largely been substituted for the Entrance Examination to High School.

We believe it to be quite within the bounds of truth to assert that, since its inception, the number of Public School Leaving certificates has not averaged twenty-five per county,—and this examination was intended to be the goal

for which the 95 per cent. who never attend a High School should aspire.

Where lies the difficulty? Do the High Schools attract all the senior pupils as soon as they are ready for Fifth Form work? Are Public School teachers not properly qualified? Have teachers of rural scholars too little time to perform so much work? Is the examination too difficult?

No doubt the High Schools have, in the past, been guilty of attracting the cream of the senior Public School pupils, but this fact is not to be deplored for, perhaps, in nearly every case where a pupil begins a High School course he continues it for more than one year, thus advancing farther than he would had he remained in the Fifth Form of the Public School for a single year. Further, no one, we believe, would argue for the retention of this class in the Public School merely to prevent it attending High School.

Are Public School teachers properly qualified to teach the Fifth Form? If they are not, it is a reflection either upon the High School programme or upon the work done in High Schools. Granting there were some grounds for such an assumption in the past, in the case of Third Class teachers, this difficulty must now speedily disappear with the abolition of Third Class certificates.

Have teachers of rural schools too little time to perform so much work? Rural school teachers, who have not had experience in this work, will, we believe, be quick to answer in the affirmative. But those who have attempted the work have been surprised that it causes no more friction than it does. Those teachers are scarce who are too busy to do something which they are fond of doing, which they feel their duty to do, and which they have the ability to do. Yet, right here, we are bound to say, lies a very great and serious difficulty, one which, to a considerable extent, handicaps the teacher who attempts to do Fifth Class

work in a rural school. He has practically to solve the problem of how to do eight or nine hours' work in six hours. How can the work be done advantageously?

When we remember that this is a Public School Leaving Examination we do not feel inclined to decry it on the ground of its being too difficult, for it is intended to represent the education which the boys and girls of Ontario are given during their whole school course. Yet it is doubtful if any High School teacher would be willing to accept this examination as a test for promotion from his First Form to the Second Form. This we consider to be one of two causes which led to the great number of failures last July. The papers, especially in English Grammar and Arithmetic, were too difficult.

Now, since it is evident that the existing condition of affairs is unsatisfactory, let us ask and briefly answer what is the nature of the programme that should be provided for advanced pupils in rural schools? It should be borne in mind that the majority of these will never attend a High School, and therefore the work should be of such a character as will prepare them for their peculiar life's work and for the enjoyment of life rather than work that will give them a certain standing in a course they never intend to take. Algebra and euclid should be unmercifully dropped from the course. A superficial knowledge of them can be of no practical value. The arithmetic course is properly considered too long, Public School Leaving candidates being asked to do nearly the same work as Primary candidates. Such an important subject, however, should not be neglected—especially commercial arithmetic, dealing with interest, taxation, insurance and annuities. Composition also should receive much attention, for the man or woman having the power of elegant expression, oral and written,

is thereby relieved of that apparent lack of refinement, or rusticity which too often clings to those who have always lived in the country. From the fact that a fondness for the beautiful in literature is capable of giving so much pleasure, English literature should therefore receive all the attention possible. Elaborate book-keeping, such as is required for the Leaving Examination, is not required in the country. The drawing up of accounts, the filling out of promissory notes, cheques, etc., might be very well taught in connection with commercial arithmetic.

Drawing does not perhaps occupy too much of the country boy's time. Much of the time spent in this work might more profitably be spent in an examination of plants, when skill in drawing their various parts would be acquired. To these subjects might be added the history of our own country, and a simple course in science.

It is generally supposed that the teaching in the rural school must of necessity be inferior to that in graded schools, from the fact that in the graded schools only one grade of pupils has to be attended to ; but this will depend in large part upon the teacher. It is an undisputed fact that there are many rural schools where the results are superior to those in graded schools. In the ungraded rural school many of the great men of our country have received their training. The judicious teacher of an ungraded school will at times see the advantage of economizing time by com-

binning various classes in certain subjects. The ingenious teacher will find many ways to teach a class that is composed of pupils of unequal attainments. It is not our purpose to show how this can be done, but to say that it must be done. The possession of this ingenuity, along with teaching-power, energy and sympathy, will go far in aiding the rural teacher to overcome the many difficulties which confront him.

But, when all the circumstances are considered, it does seem that the Public School teacher has a grievance. The maturity of mental development expected in pupils so young, the extent of the work to be covered in a year, along with the vast amount of work required to be done with the lower classes, tend very seriously to accentuate the difficulties of conducting a Fifth Class in the rural school. Although few would grant that the best results of teaching can be calculated in percents., yet the efficiency of the teacher is very often measured by examination results, and much has to be conceded to this would-be practical age, which demands tangible results. We are not contending so much for the abolition of the Fifth Class as for an opportunity to do good work. This, we believe, might be to a large extent effected were Fifth Classes excluded from schools having less than three or two teachers, and were some such changes in the programme as those suggested above adopted, so that the work can be covered in one year.

The largest school for manual training in Sweden, in the city of Naas, celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary. All those who wish to teach manual training in any form go there for a thorough preparation and have elaborate courses of study. All instruction is given free of charge and includes pedagogics of manual training, history of pedagogy, psychology, drawing,

woodwork and gymnastics. Materials, tools and dwellings are furnished by the government ; articles produced are the property of the maker. The number of teachers studying here is over 200 annually. Many foreign teachers from Germany, England, Scotland and Denmark go there for professional training.

THE PROFESSION OF CIVIL ENGINEERING.

BY STEPHEN M. DIXON, M.A., A.M.I.C.E.,

Professor of Civil Engineering in the University of New Brunswick.

To find a definition of engineering we will go back to the year 1818, when the institution of civil engineers was founded. In the charter the institution is defined as "A Society for the general advancement of Mechanical Science, and more particularly for promoting that species of knowledge which constitutes the profession of a Civil Engineer, being the art of directing the great sources of power in nature for the use and convenience of man, as the means of production and of traffic in states both for external and internal trade, as applied in the construction of roads, bridges, aqueducts, canals, river navigation, and docks, for internal intercourse and exchange, and in the construction of ports, harbors, moles, breakwaters, and lighthouses, and in the art of navigation by artificial power for the purposes of commerce, and in the construction and adaptation of machinery, and in the drainage of cities and towns."

But since 1818 engineering has been revolutionized by the introduction of steam, which not only made possible works of much greater magnitude than could have been attempted before, but added to the already numerous branches of the profession one that has now for many years taken the foremost place—railway engineering. Later still we find the field of work of the engineer much increased by electricity and its applications.

It is important to remember that, as the engineer was at first a man skilled in working engines of war, the term civil engineering was used first, and should still be used, to embrace all engineering other than military. This is contrary to the general use which divides engineering into three groups

—civil, mechanical, and electrical. Indeed we often find such subjects as surveying or sanitary engineering distinguished from civil engineering, which in this case means structural engineering.

Before enquiring, what kind of education an engineer should have, let us glance at the state of the profession before the founding of the institution of civil engineers.

We find that engineering has been practised from the earliest times, and, as Herbert Spencer has pointed out, the members of the clerical profession were first skilled in it; for at first we had only one educated class, the clerical. And so we find that the priests of Egypt led the way, followed in later times by the Roman Pontifex, the chief of the priests and the bridge-builder, and then in the middle ages came the builders of the great cathedrals.

In Egypt we find some notable examples of engineering work, principally in hydraulics. About 1385 B.C. Lake Moëris was completed. This lake is said to have been 450 miles in circumference and to have attained a maximum depth of 300 feet. The object in excavating it was to regulate the flow of the Nile, which previously had caused much damage by its floods. For six months in the year the Nile flowed by a great canal into the lake and then for the remainder of the year at low-water Lake Moëris flowed into the Nile. The canal, which was thus one of the earliest works in the regulation of rivers and irrigation, may still be seen. The Pyramids, whether merely tombs or astronomical observatories, as the late Mr. Proctor so ingeniously urged, are at least lasting

monuments of the great skill of the Egyptians in transporting material and in masonry construction. The largest of these puzzling structures contains about 82,000,000 cubic feet of masonry and weighs over 6,000,000 tons.

In Egypt we also find a fine example of municipal engineering belonging, however, to a much later date than the works just mentioned. Alexander the Great employed Dinocrates as engineer to lay out the city of Alexandria. This city, with its population of 600,000, had all the advantages of its splendid situation, and Dinocrates also constructed important harbour works. The streets of the city were laid out at right angles to each other and there was an admirable water supply. Each dwelling had a reservoir supplied with Nile water, and these reservoirs and their supply pipes being lined with cement may be seen in many places at the present day.

China, that country of which we know so little, can show many engineering works of great antiquity. We have all heard of the Great Wall, begun by Che-Hwang te in 214 B.C., and the Grand Canal in the north-east over 700 miles long. In China also is the Sangan bridge, the longest in the world, $5\frac{1}{4}$ miles long and having 300 piers. This bridge may certainly be called a permanent structure, as it has been in existence over 800 years. In the mechanical branches of engineering also China was early at work. Printing was invented in 593, and was thus known 900 years before the time of Caxton.

But ancient engineering was at its zenith during the Roman Empire. Begun in the earlier years of the Republic the public works were ever increasing in magnitude; and, if they had only been required to withstand the effects of time only, we should have many more examples of beautiful masonry construction. As it is, however, we can see how thoroughly skilled the Roman engineers were in

bridge building and masonry of all kinds, hydraulic engineering, road-making, sanitary engineering, and surveying. The permanency of their work is shown by the proposal to utilize some of the piers of Trajan's Bridge over the Danube in a new bridge to be built at the same place. This bridge was built 120 A.D. and consisted of 20 semi-circular arches, the span of each being 180 feet. The dome of the Pantheon, 142 feet in diameter, now nearly 2,000 years old, is often cited as an instance of the suitability of concrete for such structures. The Coliseum, covering an area of over 6 acres and capable of seating 70,000 persons, shows the greatest skill in the design of every detail with elaborate water supply and sanitary arrangements. It would take too much time to describe the numerous magnificent bridges constructed by the Roman engineers. Their waterworks with aqueducts, settling-ponds, filter beds, flow-off chambers, and leaden service pipes, and their splendid public roads are examples worthy of careful study even now by all who have similar works to carry out. The great sewers and their connections are amongst the earliest sanitary works still in existence. But the most remarkable works are the two tunnels which drain the Alban Lake and Lake Fucino respectively, and one of which belongs to the earlier period. As all readers of Roman history will remember when, about 398 B.C., the Romans were besieging Veia, the waters of the Alban Lake rose so high as to be a source of danger to Rome. After consulting Apollo through his Delphian Oracle the Romans learned that Veia would be taken if the waters of the lake were drawn off to the sea. Accordingly they set to work and within a year a tunnel was driven. This tunnel, 6,000 feet long, penetrated a mountain composed of the hardest lava. To expedite the work

shafts were sunk in many places along the line so that the work could be pushed forward at several places at the same time, just as in modern tunnelling. The height at which the water stood above the lake entrance must have been a serious difficulty. The construction of this so-called *emissarium* displays a high standard of knowledge of the theory and practice of surveying and levelling as well as great skill in hydraulic engineering. The Fucino tunnel belonging to the later period was completed after ten years' work in 52 A.D.

After the fall of the Roman Empire we find for a long time very little done in engineering. Between 1370 and 1377, however, Barnabo Visconti constructed the magnificent Ponte di Trezzo over the Adda, having a span of 237 feet; this is the greatest arch ever built, Cabin John Bridge, Washington, span 220 feet, being next in size. No other important works were carried out except some of the great cathedrals by the clergy and some bridges by the Freemasons.

Toward the close of the seventeenth century engineering revived, and Hydraulic Engineering was energetically practised in reclaiming the flooded lands of Northern Italy; Galileo, Torricelli, and other famous philosophers and mathematicians assisted in developing the theory of hydraulics. At the same time in France Hydraulic Engineering was also studied, and Belidor wrote his "*Architecture Hydraulique*," which may be considered as one of the first text-books of Modern Engineering—Engineering which combines theory and practice. A copy of Belidor's famous work dated 1790 may be seen in the University library. Following Belidor's suggestion in 1720 was established the Institute of Bridges and Highways, which body had charge of all engineering work in France and also of the education of all those wishing to become engineers. In 1708

was born the first great French engineer, Perronet. Thirteen remarkable bridges were built according to his designs, some of which have probably never been surpassed in elegance of design, and they are the first examples of level bridges. Perronet was also the inventor of many mechanical contrivances, amongst which was a saw for cutting off the heads of piles under water.

In England the first piece of satisfactory work was carried out by Sir Hugh Myddleton, a goldsmith, who, in 1610, commenced the work of leading the New River to London. This work he successfully completed, and the New River still forms part of London's water supply. However, there was no engineering profession in England for many years, and, when it was determined to build a lighthouse on the Eddystone Reef, disastrous results followed on two occasions from employing men who had no training nor skill in the matter. Then, in 1756, Smeaton was chosen, and, as it turned out, the choice was a wise one. Born in 1724, Smeaton had received a good education at Leeds Grammar School, and was then apprenticed to a philosophical instrument maker. He took a deep interest in engineering works, read many papers before the Royal Society, and in 1754 made a tour of the low countries to inspect the canals. His lighthouse, as we know, was a great success and has only recently been taken down to be replaced by a higher one. In 1757 Telford, the first President of the Institution of Civil Engineers, was born. The son of an Eskdale shepherd, at fifteen years of age, he was apprenticed to a stonemason, and yet found time to study Latin, French, German, and English literature, and even to compose some verses. After successful work in London, he completed his first highway bridge in 1792, and was appointed Chief Engineer to the Ellesmere Canal

and afterwards to all the principal canals being constructed at that time in England. The King of Sweden consulted him on the construction of the Gotha Canal, and Telford superintended the work on it. Telford's fame, however, rests on his magnificent roads. He built 920 miles of roads in the Highlands of Scotland and also a system of roads through the Welsh Mountains, which included the beautiful Menai Suspension Bridge. His continental work also included the road from Brest to Warsaw, constructed for the Austrian Government.

Mention has been made of the revolution caused in the profession of engineering by the introduction of steam, and we must now take a glance at Watt and his many discoveries in steam engineering.

In 1757 Watt, then only twenty-one years old, was established in the University of Glasgow as scientific instrument maker. With Black, the Professor of Chemistry, and famous as the discoverer of latent heat, he often discussed the possibility of improving the steam engine as it then existed. Newcomen's engine, the forerunner of Watt's, was merely used as a pumping engine. In this engine the top of the cylinder was uncovered, the steam was admitted below the piston only, and was condensed in the cylinder by a jet of cold water. After nine years of thought and study on the nature of steam, Watt at last conceived the idea of the condenser, and this with many other improvements, such as packing for the piston, cover and stuffing-box for cylinder, admitting steam to both sides of the piston, and the steam jacket he patented in 1769. Other inventions of Watt with regard to the steam engine are methods for converting the reciprocating motion to a motion of rotation, expansive working, parallel motion for the piston rod, throttle valve, centrifugal governor, and indicator. In fact, the only im-

portant changes since Watt's time are three, namely: (1) The great beam has been abandoned; (2) adoption of high pressure; (3) compound expansion. In 1780 Watt took out a patent for a simple process now used over the whole civilized world—the method of copying letters by using damp paper and slightly glutinous ink.

The inventions of Watt thus paved the way for George Stevenson and the first steam railroad in 1825, and with the railroad the present era of engineering began.

Though engineering is an eminently practical profession, still it differs in a marked way from the other scientific profession, that of medicine, in depending most closely on mathematics and mathematical physics, and we shall see that a thorough theoretical knowledge is absolutely necessary for its successful practice. An engineer must be a scientist as well as a practical man, and, although in the foregoing sketch we find names of men who have attained to great eminence as engineers without having had a sound theoretical training, still it was owing to great natural ability that they were so successful, and in many of their great works practice which then was worthy of praise would now be rather worthy of blame. In a recent lecture delivered by Dr. Anderson he said that, "having seen the great advantages that have accrued from the employment of men of the highest scientific culture in carrying out the engineering works in continental Europe and in the United States of America, we must recognize the fact that the days are past when an engineer can acquit himself respectably by the aid of mother wit alone, or of certain constructive instincts which have been almost the only guide of engineers and manufacturers down to quite recent times." A practical man is one who is guided by his own experience, and so is one who in narrow limits is not likely to make serious

mistakes, but he always needs a precedent, and, if he departs from the beaten track, must do so tentatively. It is true that the enormous tubular bridge across the Menai Straits was constructed by the successful practical engineer, Robert Stephenson, but it was the result of many experiments, and, till completed, its builder was uncertain whether it would carry the necessary load or not, a proof of which remains to this day in the grooves left in the masonry for supporting chains if they should have been needed. And this bridge and its successors, the Conway and Victoria tubular bridges, though worthy monuments of Stephenson's skill and success as an early engineer, would be looked on as faulty and wasteful practice if executed now. And this is due entirely to the fact that at that time theory and practice were kept apart. The celebrated Navier had some time before lectured on the methods of determining stresses in such structures, but the practical men at that time in England had not the opportunities to learn the principles which would have enabled them to proportion the various parts of their bridges to the stresses which they had to bear. But theory and practice were soon to be firmly joined together, and we find that a small girder only seventy feet span, on the Great Northern Railway of Ireland over the River Cusher, was the first iron lattice girder in which all the parts were properly proportioned to bear the stresses which came on them. This bridge, designed by Barton, was immediately followed by the magnificent Boyne viaduct, whose central span is 267 feet, and which "must ever rank as a signal illustration of the successful application of

abstract principles to a great work by men who were capable, not only of appreciating them, but of following their guidance in a practical manner."

It might at first sight seem that, owing to the many branches of engineering, it would be well to have special schools for each branch, and that a student having determined which branch he intended to follow should devote all his energies to that alone. Such, however, is not found expedient. Over specialization is bad. A man thoroughly equipped as a railroad engineer might find himself hopelessly crippled at some time for want of some knowledge of electrical engineering; and, in fact, we find in many cases successful engineers have attained their success in other branches of the profession than that in which they had started.

A man in these days to attain even ordinary success must be well equipped when he enters on the practice of his profession, otherwise he will have many years of hard work, and he will always look with regret on the time wasted in his earlier years. The successful engineer is one who combines the highest scientific knowledge with wide experience. This scientific knowledge can only be obtained in special schools, and it is the duty of the State to see that such schools are maintained in an efficient condition. It is true that such men as Smeaton, Watt, Brindley and the Stephensons were successful, and yet had not opportunities of attending Technical colleges, but the average student might well hesitate to compare his natural ability to theirs, and they were all hard students, and made use of all the opportunities of study they met.

(To be continued.)

THE GROWTH OF P.E. ISLAND EDUCATIONALLY.

BY INSPECTOR G. J. McCORMAC.

FOR two long centuries after its discovery, from 1479 to 1700, Prince

Edward Island lay untenanted except by the aboriginal Indians and a stray European who may have acquired their language, or cultivated their friendship. It is, however, from the year 1715, or two years after the Treaty of Utrecht, that the Island may be regarded as a settled country. The first to settle in the colony were Acadians, and these subsisted by fishing and the cultivation of small patches of ground. Progress was slow, for in 1728 there were only sixty families on the Island; and in 1745, or thirty years after the settlement began, they did not exceed 150 families, or about 800 souls. A French officer who visited the Island in 1752 reckoned the whole population to be 1,354. The expulsion of the Acadians from Nova Scotia in 1355 tended greatly to increase the population of the Island, as many of the fugitives settled here. On the surrender of Prince Edward Island to the British three years later the number of inhabitants was over 6,000. Shortly after this a panic seemed to have seized the inhabitants; they dreaded a forcible expulsion like their brethren in Acadia; cultivation was abandoned, and many of the people went to the mainland as a place of greater safety. When William Patterson arrived in 1770 as the first Governor of Prince Edward Island as a separate province there were not more than 150 families. At the beginning of the present century the population was about 5,000. In Charlottetown there were only fifty families, or between 250 and 300 persons. It will be remarked that up to 1800, A.D., the population of the Island was very unsteady, and to a great degree was

migratory. Consequently very little progress was made, and education received very little attention. In August, 1767, the Island was divided into townships or lots and granted to individuals having claims upon the British Government. Each township was to furnish a glebe lot of 100 acres for a clergyman and a lot of thirty acres for a schoolmaster. No schoolmaster, coming from England, was permitted to teach without a license from the Bishop of London; and it was assumed in his instructions that all Christians, save those connected with the Church of England, were heterodox. Some denominations were, indeed, tolerated, but, in conformity to the bigoted British policy of the times, Roman Catholics were not permitted to settle on the Island. In 1834 the Legislature petitioned the King to allow that body to appropriate to the support of education the clergy reserves and the school lands, as it was impossible to dispose of them according to the original intention. In the following year an Act was passed by the Legislature authorizing the sale of the lands and appropriating the monies arising from the sales for the purpose of promoting general education within the Island. In 1821 education began to receive some of the attention it deserved, and in that year an institution called the National School was opened in Charlottetown. In 1829 the Legislature passed a Bill for the establishment of a classical academy in Charlottetown, to be designated the "Central Academy," vesting the management in a patron and nine trustees. Two teachers were to be employed, each to receive a salary of £150 a year, and no religious test was to be permitted. In January, 1836, the Academy was

opened, the Rev. Charles Lloyd and Mr. Alex. Brown being the first teachers. Mr. Lloyd soon retired, owing to ill-health, and was succeeded by Rev. James Waddell, of Truro, Nova Scotia. In 1843 provision was made for the employment of an additional teacher. The Academy henceforth was conducted with great vigor and success and grew into a very valuable educational institution.

An Act of the Parliament of 1830 authorized the appointment of a Board of Education of five persons. The Board was required to meet every three months. Shortly after the passing of this Act the appointments were made. According to the provisions of our present School Act the Board of Education consists of nine members, being composed of the members of the Executive Council, the Principal of Prince of Wales College and Normal School and the Chief Superintendent of Education for the Province. The Provincial Teachers' Association are endeavoring to secure direct representation on the Board. Such representation would facilitate a frequent interchange of views upon matters which the teachers as a body might desire to bring under the notice of the Executive, and would bring the members of the Government into more direct contact with the teaching force.

In 1837 the first official Inspector of Schools for the province was appointed in the person of Mr. John McNeill, formerly Chief Clerk of the House of Assembly. He held the situation of Inspector for ten years, during which time he effected much improvement. In 1837 there were 52 schools and 1,649 scholars. When Mr. McNeill vacated the position in 1847 there were about 125 schools and over 5,000 scholars. His first report was published in October, 1837, and gave a graphic description of the educational conditions of the country at that time.

I will now quote some paragraphs from this report :

"Though various laws have been enacted from time to time by the Legislature of this Island for the regulation of schools, and considerable sums of money have been appropriated for their encouragement, I regret to have it to state from recent personal observations that the system of instruction pursued in many of the country schools throughout the Island is extremely defective and consequently but little really useful and substantial knowledge is acquired by the children attending them.

"This appears to me to arise from several causes, some of these perhaps unavoidable in a new country like this. In many of the settlements the inhabitants are poor, and, having to struggle with numerous difficulties in procuring the means of subsistence for their families, the education of their children is with them a matter of mere secondary consideration. And even when they do turn their attention to this important object they are not (generally speaking) very scrupulous in the selection of their teachers, satisfying themselves with the common idea that it is better to have any teacher than none at all.

"The little encouragement which is in most cases held out to teachers of character and qualifications and the precarious manner in which their salaries are paid operate most powerfully as a bar in the way of the advancement of education. Hence it too frequently happens that it is only persons of shipwrecked character and blasted prospects in life, after every other resource has failed them, who take up the important office of schoolmaster; and hence also the frequent changing of the teacher; the long lapse of time that takes place after the expiration of the engagement of the old before a new one is appointed; in

consequence of which the children nearly forget what they had previously acquired.

"The migratory character of the schools, or the shifting of them from place to place, has, in my opinion, another injurious effect upon the progress of education. From this cause it happens that after the children have made considerable proficiency their career is stopped all at once by the removal of the school to another part of the district, where the population has recently become more dense, and then the former locality is completely deserted, the settlers immediately around it being unable, without the co-operation of their more distant neighbors, to secure the continuance of the school.

"I must also mention another practice which is too prevalent in the country, and which I conceive to be exceedingly injurious to the respectability of the teacher in the eyes of the pupil, and consequently hurtful to his usefulness—that is, receiving his board by going from house to house; in which case he is regarded, both by parents and children, as little better than a common menial; and from the familiarity which must necessarily subsist between himself and the family he cannot exercise that authority over his pupils which is indispensably necessary for a teacher to maintain.

"At East Point (Kings County) is a school taught by a competent teacher, John Slattery, in which I met with the only Latin scholars taught in any school on the Island."

At this period the schools were supported by voluntary contributions, aided by partial assessments and Legislative grants.

In 1833 there was 74 schools and 2,176 scholars. In 1841 the schools numbered 121 and the scholars 4,356. By the report of 1851 the number of schools had increased to 135 with a total enrolment of 5,366. At this time there were three school inspectors, one

for each county, viz.: John McNeill for Queen's County, John Arbuckle for Prince County, and John Ross for Kings County.

In October, 1853, John M. Starke was appointed visitor of schools for the whole Island. He was a graduate of Stowe's Normal School, Glasgow, Scotland. In 1856 there were in operation 268 schools, attended by 11,000 scholars. So the number of both schools and scholars had almost doubled during the six years, 1850-1856.

Governor Bonnerman, in opening the session of 1852, stated that he had much pleasure in visiting many parts of the Island, but that he observed with regret the educational deficiency which still existed.

An Act for the encouragement of education and to raise funds for that purpose, by imposing an additional assessment on land, was passed. This Act was called the Free Education Act and formed the basis of the present educational system of the province, which has conferred such a great blessing on the country.

On October 1st, 1856, a Normal School for the training of candidates for the teaching profession was opened at Charlottetown by Governor Daby in presence of a large assemblage. Several interesting addresses were delivered. Inspector Starke's remarks in reference to moral instruction in schools gave rise to a great agitation on the propriety of Biblical instruction in the schools, and resulted in his early resignation of the office of Inspector of Schools. The Bible question was brought before the Legislature during the sessions of 1857 and 1858 by numerous signed petitions asking that the use of the Bible in all the Public Schools be authorized by law. The prayer of the petitioners was rejected by the House of Assembly on both occasions.

During the session of 1860 several

Acts were passed relating to education. One provided for an additional teacher in the Normal School; another declared the introduction of the Bible into the Public Schools to be legally authorized, while another provided for the establishment of the Prince of Wales College. In 1879 the College was amalgamated with the Provincial Normal School. All the Public School teachers receive their education here. The curriculum includes Latin, Greek, French, English Language and Literature, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Agriculture and Agricultural Chemistry, Natural History, Ancient and Modern History, Bookkeeping and the principles and practices of teaching. This institution has an excellent staff of teachers under the principalship of Alex. Anderson, LL.D., a thorough disciplinarian and a teacher of much ability. A new college building is being erected and will be completed next fall (1899). Last session there were 233 students attending old Prince of Wales College.

On December 13th, 1859, there died a man who always took a deep interest in promoting education, the Right Rev. B. D. McDonald. He established many district schools, also a convent where young ladies receive a superior education. In 1855 he opened St. Dunstan's College, now one of our leading educational institutions, and the only one in the province which confers degrees. It is affiliated with Laval University.

In 1863 some changes were made in the Education Act, the reduction of the teachers' pay from the treasury by £15 and the introduction of the Grammar Schools. The fifteen pounds deducted from the teachers' treasury allowance was required, by the amended Act, to be made up by each school district, and the amount had to be guaranteed by the school trustees to the teacher in a written agreement in order to enable him to receive his

treasury allowance, so that according to the new law every school district that would not raise at least fifteen pounds for the teacher was to get no aid for its school from the treasury. But this arrangement proved unpopular and had to be abandoned in 1867 and the whole of the teachers' salary made payable from the Provincial treasury.

In 1877 a new School Law was passed which dealt successfully with the delicate and difficult problem of our school question. This law is now admitted by all classes and creeds to be well adapted to the wants of a mixed community like ours. The success of the new School Law is very clearly shown by the fact that within the first eighteen months of its operation the attendance of pupils at the Public Schools increased by over five thousand. West Kent Street School, Charlottetown, the Summerside, Georgetown, and other important schoolhouses were erected about this time.

The following extract from Superintendent Manning's report for 1878 shows that at the advent of our present school system there was vast room for improvement in the teaching profession: "Foremost among the hindrances to the progress of education on this Island is the large number of farmer-teachers employed and the irregularity of attendance; and when, as is often the case, these occur in the same district, the result is disastrous to the school. A moderate amount of muscular exertion should operate only to improve a teacher's efficiency, but it can be easily seen that the service suffers in the case of one farming on such a scale as to require a \$160 mowing machine, while his school is graded second rank by the County Inspector. Another dragging his weary limbs into the schoolroom half an hour late is so little interested in the studies of ten or twelve youngsters

that he soon drops off in a doze! Trustees have more than once described these farmer-teachers as 'just going into school to rest themselves.' This is a matter which only the people can remedy by refusing to employ this unprofitable class of schoolmasters."

In 1880 was introduced a system of classification of Graded Schools based on merit alone. Up to this year first-class schools were established by a vote of the Board of Education and retained their rank without any regard to efficiency. They are now raised to that rank whenever they reach the standard fixed by the Chief Superintendent of Education. This step has made these schools centres of educational activity. Those of them that ceased to be such were dropped from the list of first-class schools and assigned an inferior rank until by merit they again won the position lost.

The Provincial Teachers' Association was instituted in 1880. It was incorporated by Act of Parliament in 1896. This Association is in a very progressive and prosperous condition. It meets once a year.

In 1881 a general "Course of Studies" for the grading of the Public Schools was adopted. In the same year a general system of entrance examinations to the Prince of Wales College and Normal School was established. These examinations are under the control and direction of the Chief Superintendent of Education.

In the following year several important amendments were made to the Public Schools' Act which greatly in-

creased its efficiency. In 1883 the study of Agricultural Chemistry was introduced into the schools of the Island, and two years later an Arbor Day was established for the schools.

In 1861 a census was taken and the schoolhouses were found to number 302, the teachers 280. In 1870 the total number of schools was 372 and scholars 15,000. In 1874 the number of schools was 403, of scholars 18,233. The salaries of teachers then ranged from \$113.56 to \$324.44. In 1878 there were 465 schools, 413 teachers and 19,240 scholars. In 1881 there were 486 schools, 463 teachers and 21,601 pupils. In 1887 there were 437 schools, 505 teachers employed, and 22,460 pupils. To-day we have 467 schools, employing 579 teachers and having an enrolment of 21,845 pupils. The salaries paid teachers range from \$130 to \$783.

Our schools to-day are in a healthy and flourishing condition; they are no longer held down by brute force or taught incompetently or irrationally. The teachers of this province are alert and active as a body and do their duties faithfully. The C.P.R. express is no farther ahead of the lumbering stage coach than the P.E.I. school of to-day is ahead of the school of twenty years ago. The moral, social, intellectual, and industrial circumstances of the people have all changed. The old log schoolhouse is a thing of the past, and our school buildings, with very few exceptions, are very comfortable, well furnished, and well lighted.

To live content with small means; to seek elegance rather than luxury, and refinement rather than fashion; to be worthy, not respectable, and wealthy, not rich; to study hard, think quickly, talk gently, act frankly; to listen to stars and birds, babes and

sages, with open heart; to bear all cheerfully, do all bravely, await occasions, hurry never; in a word, to let the spiritual, unbidden and unconscious, grow up through the common. This is to be my symphony.

CONCERNING GIRLS.

Manners Versus Learning.

In the last century, education was looked at from a standpoint very different from what it is now. Ignorance was not considered a disgrace, and to be uncertain in his spelling was no bar to being a gentleman. In the education of the girls especially, books seem to have borne a very small part, Dean Swift declaring, in his usual dogmatic way, that "not one gentleman's daughter in a thousand can read or understand her own natural tongue." Certainly in his generation, needlework and deportment were the chief things taught them. Dignity of manners was judged to be of more importance than book-learning; but as women are more adaptable than men, more capable of catching the prevailing tone of thought, they could hold their own in society in spite of their ignorance, as long as they were finely mannered and not hoydenish. Grace of carriage, therefore, good breeding to make home peaceful and pleasant, piety to rule her private conduct, formed the ideal of perfection in woman. Thoroughness or exactness of knowledge was not thought compatible with these good qualities, and learned ladies were dreaded accordingly. The *Spectator* tells that "a lady at court having accidentally made use of a hard word in a proper place and pronounced it right, the whole assembly was out of countenance for her"; showing how a woman who knew more than others of her sex was regarded, if she "had dared to read and dared to say she read." Dancing, being the only physical exercise then allowed to girls, was much prized, both as a healthful exertion and a training in elegance and grace; and the dances of the period were nearly all in very stately measure. Most of us middle-aged people must still remember a few old-

lady friends whose beautiful, attractive presence and gracious manner were once the dread and admiration of our childhood.

In the present day, things are much changed. The girl's education is as thorough as the boy's. No smattering of knowledge now contents us for them, but examinations as stiff and exhaustive are given to them as to their brothers, and with as good results. Along with this high mental discipline, the physical training goes hand in hand; so that with boating, swimming, calisthenics, cricket, lawn-tennis, the physique of this and future generations should go on improving at a rapid rate. The idea that a beautiful girl must be pale and delicate-looking, and that, to be interesting, she must be ready to faint at the least exertion or motion, like the heroines in the old novels, is now quite exploded.

But, in gaining all this mental and physical excellence, care must be taken that we are not losing the well-bred courtesy that used to sit so gracefully on our grandmothers, or the loss will be greater than the gain. In avoiding the ignorance of the past, there is the danger of going to the other extreme, of making learning of too much importance, or rather of making it all-important, forgetting that for the proper application of it other faculties are required; that a girl crammed with knowledge is only like a bookcase full of books, unless she has the power to use it for good and to give pleasure to herself and others. And what will give her this power? Only a proper training in which good manners or good breeding, as the essayists of the last century were fond of calling it, holds its proper place; and a greater injustice is done to a girl in leaving this part of her education incomplete

than if her book-learning should not be exact and precise. It is only in childhood that this can really be acquired, that the easy, courteous demeanor can grow to be second nature; and it is then also that the brusque boyish manner, so much to be deprecated, is formed.

The discipline to be undergone for this part of her education is also a great gain to the child, as great almost as the result, keeping in proper check, as it does, many propensities fostered by the emulation in the schools, and strengthening very opposite qualities. The one training places self in the foremost place, fosters self-will, want of reverence, boldness, independence of character; all of which may not be evil qualities, but would be greatly improved by being controlled by the courtesy and graciousness of manner, which, while perfectly self-possessed, is thoughtful for others, full of deference for the old, and purely womanly in type. There is no true reason why an advance in learning should mean a decay in manners; the opposite ought to be the case; a true enlightenment ought to mean culture, and culture—refinement both in thought and observation.

Woman in the past has been the helper and consoler of man, and though other paths in life may now be opening to her, making marriage not so imperative, yet her real place and chief purpose is to be his *alter ego* and help-mate. Woman's influence is the most powerful of the great forces that affect men. It pervades everything. It is calming, soothing, elevating and stimulating. While aiding men to do their duty, it makes them content in doing it, and keeps alive in them the love of social intercourse. To have this influence in the future, as she has had in the past, woman needs all the intellectual improvement she is at present gaining; but added to it she requires the grace and good breeding

of the olden time to make her a woman of high culture and noble aspiration, yet of loving womanly sweetness. It as often happens that such a one can uplift a husband to the dignity of her own character, as that a husband can uplift a wife to his own rank.

The tendency of the times has been to raise women more and more to an intellectual equality with man, and with this growth the sentiment has risen in their minds that the conventions of the world are against their complete development; that the rules of society have been formed for the comfort of the man without regard to the good of the woman; thus generating in many a feeling of rebellion against a few of those existing customs. As woman's ambition has been roused by her new position, and her faculties awakened, a number of the sisterhood have protested against the old time notion that she ought to steal through life unheard and unremarked—that it is a reproach for her to be talked of; and these, rushing to the other extreme, have been led to court notoriety, to despise conventionalities and to adopt a hostile manner towards the other sex, while assuming a brusque demeanor that is not at all pleasing or attractive. As some writers have striven to set class against class, others lately have been trying to array sex against sex. Nothing could be more absurd. However close the relation between sisters, between mother and daughter, or between any two women, it can never be so strong as between husband and wife; and the tie between father and daughter, mother and son, or brother and sister, is usually the more binding because of the difference of sex.

Educating the one sex, without any consideration of a probable affinity to the other, is therefore not advisable, still less the setting of them up in opposition. But, as time goes on, the

antagonism on the man's part towards learned ladies, as well as the bitterness on the woman's side for her treatment in the past, is dying out. It is in the woman's power to decide if her kingdom is still to exist—if man is to be after all under her sway, as of old—if she means to fight the battle of life by

his side, or as his rival. Her cultivated, bright intelligence will have to be put forth, not to lift her up above her every-day employments, but to throw a grace over her common acts, and to make her a centre of holy influences and innocent cheerfulness. —*Chambers' Journal*.

THE ENGLISH ALPHABET AS IT OUGHT TO BE TAUGHT.

BY INSPECTOR J. COYLE BROWN, PETERBORO, ONT.

Symbol	Name.	Keyword to Name.	Symbol	Name	Keyword to Name.
a	a	aim	v	ve	venial
b	be	being	w	woo	wooning
c	ke	kedron	x	ex	exit
d	se	cedar	y	yi	
e	de	deist	z	ze	zenith
f	e	eat	oo	oo	ooze
g	ef	effort	au	au	author
h	ge	geese	aw	aw	awful
i	je	genius	ou	ou	outer
j	he	hero	ow	ow	owlet
k	i	ice	oi	oi	oil
l	ja	Jacob	oy	oy	oyster
m	ka	Kali	ch	che	cheese
n	el	elbow	ph	fe	phenix
o	em	emmet	qu	kwe	queen
p	en	enter	sh	she	shear
q	o	open	th	the	theme
r	pe	period	th	the	these
s	ku	curious	wh	kwe	wheel
t	ar	arrow	ck	ek	heck
u	es	essay	gh	af	laugh
	te	tea	ng	eng	length
	u	use	tch	etch	fetch

THEORETIC OBJECTIONS AND REMARKS.

1. No names indicative of their sounds are given to the single vowels, *a, e, i, o, u*, when they are short. It is contrary to the genius of the English language to use the short sounds of most of these in a detached way, and on the whole no advantage is gained by attempting it.

2. *C, g* and *th* have each two names. There is no way of overcoming this, without changing the form of the characters, and this is not desirable.

3. *Au* and *aw* have the same name;

so have *ou* and *ow*; so, also, have *oi* and *oy*. This occasions no difficulty either in pronouncing words or in oral spelling.

What can't be cured must be endured.

4. *Ch* (che) and *tch* (etch) have the same function; so have *f* (ef), *gh* (af) and *ph* (fe); so, also, have *c* (ke), *k* (ka), *q* (ku) and *ck* (ek). This is a drawback in teaching, but not a great one. It cannot be avoided without changing the appearance of the written and printed page.

5. Many of the symbols have irregular uses; for example, *oo* is sometimes short, as in foot; sometimes like *o* long, as in door; and sometimes like *u* short, as in flood; *ch* (che) is often like *c* (ke), as in chasm; and sometimes like *sh* (she) as in chaise. When the regular uses of the symbols are thoroughly established in the mind of the learner, the irregularities are mastered with comparative ease.

The names are better to learn with than the attempted phones. They can be more rapidly applied. They can be given with any required degree of audibility, they never have to be changed, being adapted to the needs of the cultured literary man as well as to those of the little child. They distinguish between *ch, tch, f, gh, ph, c, k, q* and *ck*, which the phones cannot do.

(*Ch, tch, f, gh, ph, c, k, q* and *ck*.)

ADVANTAGE OF PROPOSED CHANGE.

It will lessen the time of learning to read by one-half.

It will lessen the teacher's labor by more than one-half.

It will enable many subjects to be *learned* that hitherto had to be *taught*.

It will enable a foreigner to acquire

a knowledge of the language in a much shorter time.

It will do much to make learners acquainted with the regularities and irregularities of the language, and thus lead to many absurdities in spelling being dropped.

It will do more than any other pedagogic movement to make the English language the language of the world.

De Massa to de shepa'd say :
 "Go call de sheep dat's gone astray.
 De night is col', I hear de win'
 A-shakin' gin my winder blin';
 Dar's some po' sheep dat's gone astray.
 Go call 'em in, Cu-dey ! Cu-dey !
 Cu-dey ! Cu-dey ! Cu-dey !"

An' all night long de win' an' rains,
 An' hail against de winder panes,
 In dreams I hyar de massa call
 De wanderin' sheep, he knows 'em all.
 He pints de road, an' shows de way
 An' ever stan's an' calls, "Cu-dey !
 Cu-dey ! Cu-dey ! Cu-dey ! Cu-dey !
 Cu-dey ! Cu-dey ! Cu-dey ! Cu-dey !" — *Ben. King*

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Deliver not the tasks of might
 To weakness, neither hide the ray
 From those, not blind, who wait for day,
 Tho' sitting girt with doubtful light.

"That from Discussion's lips may fall
 With Life, that working strongly, binds—
 Set in all lights by many minds,
 So close the interests of all."

The standard for admission to the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes is fixed by law at the upper limit of the Fourth Book class in the Public School. After passing this fixed standard of work, if the pupil still continues in the Public School, should fees be charged? Fifth Book classes are supposed to be more advanced in school work than the standard for admission to a High School, in which class of schools fees are usually charged. Several reasons can be given for this change in the treatment of the school question: To lessen the burden of the tax-payer and to indicate that the High School is not a State necessity, while the Public School course is considered such. The great majority of the pupils in the Public Schools never reach the Fifth Book

class, although we think that all should accomplish the school work required in order to pass the standard for entrance to a High School. But the fact is otherwise, by far the greater number of scholars in the Public Schools never reach even the Fourth Book class.

It is this part of the school programme, it seems to us, that the Public School authorities should seriously consider, viz., the part from the beginning of the school work to the end of what is required to complete the work prescribed for the Fourth Book classes. Trustees, teachers and inspectors should with utmost care and diligence devote their energies to the proper and efficient educating of all children in their schools, at least to the end of

the programme of school work for Fourth Book classes. Nearly all their scholars complete their school life at this point.

Still, however, the question remains, if the pupils do continue in school for school work in Fifth Book classes should fees be charged? Most people will say, we fancy, yes. And some will say no, until the pupil has passed the Public School Leaving Examination. No one will advocate, however, that pupils who remain at the Public Schools till they pass the first part of the Junior Matriculation Examination should be taught at the expense of the public. Justice demands that if this be done at the Public Schools it should also be done at the University. If supplies are furnished for pupils who attain this standard at the Public Schools they should also be furnished for students at the University. Many young men and young women have to provide their own fees, and pay for their books and writing paper, who would be grateful if a generous though unwise public would pay their expenses at College and University. The question now arises, will this be a good investment for the public taxpayer? In one case out of a thousand it might be. In the case of the nine hundred and ninety-nine, it would not be profitable for the public, nor advantageous for the pupil. It is the teaching of experience that labor is profitable for all things. There is a satisfactory way of dealing with this difficult question which we will not take time to discuss at present.

For these and other reasons, we conclude that fees should be paid by those who are in the Fifth Book classes in the Public Schools. The fee might be small, say twenty-five cents a month. In the case of supplies being furnished the fee might be fifty cents a month. We fail to see why gratuitous schooling should be given to those who are fit to pass the Entrance Examination

to the High School, if they stay in a Public School, while the same pupils, if they enter a High School, generally have to pay.

THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY has day in day out advocated for the highest possible attainments in education. We rejoice in power and conspicuous ability. But we advocated earnestly and constantly to educate the character rather than the memory, and the heart rather than the intellect. Let the future generation know how to read and write, to manufacture and trade in the best possible way; but, let us feel more and more that people gain in self-knowledge, self-control, and self-respect. The moral element in a people is the leading part. If we fail in nourishing this in the life of our people, our failure is complete. We are exceedingly glad to see that the people are being called upon to reason on this vital question by the organs of the different churches. We print an extract this month from *The Evangelical Churchman*, which is a sample of what is to be found in many. And we are glad to see the general press of the country is also giving efficient help in this very important discussion. We may, without offence, be allowed to name some of those papers which have come under our notice: *The Mail and Empire*, *The Montreal Gazette*, *The Montreal Witness*, *The Quebec Chronicle*, and *The Toronto Globe*. No doubt there are other papers, but those above mentioned have come to our notice as giving special attention to this all-important question. The Bible must be recognized in many ways in our Public School programme; its spirit of spirituality must be acknowledged and pervade all our schools.

The country, state, or province that claims superiority for its system of education and yet neglects the sus-

taining of efficient training schools for its teachers is simply acting the part of an idle boaster or hypocrite. That the teacher makes the school is a principle, perhaps, not wide enough to include every element of school-work, but it is a fairly practical principle that may be adopted by a school board when selecting teachers, and an excellent guide to the government that has the cause of education at heart. Nearly all of our Canadian provinces had it in view when they inaugurated a system of public instruction, with the exception, perhaps, of British Columbia, where there exists no Normal School up to the present time. That there should be a Normal School in Victoria or Vancouver the people of British Columbia have no hesitation in saying when they join our educational gatherings to the eastward; and at one time the Hon. Colonel Baker, a former Minister of Education of that province, seemed to be on the eve of organizing such an institution. The institution, however, has not yet been organized, and possibly may not be organized until the passion of politics comes to take up the question, with partyism on both sides of the street. Many of the teachers and school inspectors of the great western province have had their learning in the other provinces of the Dominion, the Superintendent of Education, Dr. Pope himself, also hailing from the East. From his experience gained there he has been able to add to the improvements of the system he has been called upon to supervise, and we are assured that his sympathies are all in favor of "beginning at the right end" as soon as possible.

It would be absurd for us to advance reasons in favor of a Normal School training at this late date, even should any benighted Westerner wish to have them repeated for the thousandth time as an encouragement to the Local

Government at present in charge of the affairs of his province, if not to all our local governments. And yet he may be surprised to learn that the training of teachers has not yet been introduced or developed as far as it should go in many countries that claim to possess the "best educational system in the world." Only in one or two of the Canadian provinces and in but few of the States has the Normal School training of the college graduate received the attention it ought to receive, and even yet the idea lingers amongst us that a young man is fitted to teach if he has graduated at any of our universities. In Ontario the well-organized School of Pedagogy established at Hamilton, and now under the able superintendency of Dr. McLellan, has removed the reproach from that Province that a Normal School training might with safety stop at the elementary school. An effort is also being made to establish a professorship of education in connection with McGill University, but beyond these movements little or nothing has been done to give the College graduate a special training to fit him to take charge of advanced classes in an Academy or High School. This fact, however, should not deter the people of British Columbia from making immediate provision for the maintenance of a well-equipped Normal School for the training of teachers for their schools.

Pestalozzi left this as a legacy to the world, that the teacher should be specially trained. David Storne, the founder of the first Normal School in the world, accepted the legacy as a challenge, and worked out the principle to a success in Glasgow. When Horace Mann began to improve the school system of Massachusetts, he soon found that the great defect in the system was not the indifference of the parents or the communities, but the ignorance of the teachers and their

wretched methods of running a school ; and on this account became at once the great pleader in behalf of training schools for teachers.

Dr. Ryerson began his great life's work with the organizing of a Normal School, and so did Dr. Forrester, of Nova Scotia ; and when Sir Louis Davies determined to improve the schools of his native Province, Prince Edward Island, by taking advantage of his premiership in passing the Education Act of 1877, he took pains to provide for the organization of a proper Normal School. New Brunswick and Nova Scotia have their Normal Schools, the one at Fredericton and the other at Truro. Quebec has four Normal Schools ; Ontario three, with another in process of building ; Manitoba one, and the Canadian North-West one. Canada has, therefore, no reason to be ashamed of her enterprise in this direction, and, when opportunity arises, we may, later on, look into the organization of the above institutions, to see wherein they differ, and how far their work may be further assimilated.

In this connection we may say that we are glad to learn that the Government of Prince Edward Island has completed arrangements for the construction of a new building for the Prince of Wales College and Normal School. This has not been accomplished without much discussion, lasting as it has for nearly twenty years. The Provincial Normal School as organized under the Davies Administration in 1877, had a separate existence, with the departments of one of the city schools for practising schools, but in a few years, under a succeeding government, the spirit of economy brought about the amalgamation of the institution with the Prince of Wales College. Considering the lack of suitable accommodation for

such amalgamation the movement was looked upon by many as a retrograde step, and the subsequent history of the training school has by no means discounted that opinion. The Hon. Mr. Farquharson has at last taken the matter in hand, and a new building will soon be opened under brighter opportunities for the training department, which, it is thought, will be re-organized in such a way as to provide the schools of the Province with a requisite number of properly trained teachers. If such a re-organization does take place there will be no need to further lament about the retrograde step taken in 1880, since the principle that the teacher makes the school will again have fair play in the tight little island Province in the east.

The ethical problem we incidentally referred to last month in our notes of the late Montreal Convention is being further discussed as a "sore point" in the newspapers, and Major Hewton, of Richmond, one of the most zealous and outspoken of Quebec educationists, is again likely to find out what a task it is to convince an antagonist whose logic finds its present and only strength in the gainsaying of a majority. The man who thinks that a majority vote can always make a measure or motion right or wrong, or any line of conduct justifiable or unjustifiable, may be for the time a very dangerous antagonist, but he is none the less the wishy-washest of logicians. Anytus and Meletus could circulate the rumor against Socrates that he was an atheist and everything that was bad, and get a majority of Athenian judges to condemn him to drink the hemlock ; but the soul of things is just, and even Dr. Kneeland, of McGill Normal School, must come to see this in time, and prefer to gain more and more the reputation of a Socrates than of an Anytus and Meletus. Major Hewton may also take assurance from

the fact that if the Anytuses and Meletuses are after him their unpopularity-breeding phrases against a publicist of his standing must come to naught in the end. But for the temporarily unpopular man the world would have made but little advance, and though unpopularity may not be a paying game for the moment it is always a paying game in the end when honesty comes to be practised as the highest and best policy.

There is one phase of the discussions in connection with the above that we cannot but condemn, and that is the accusation, indirect as it may be claimed to be, that the reporter of the doings of the convention was anybody but the reporter himself duly accredited by the newspaper he represents. Dr. Kneeland's punishment at the hands of *The St. John's News* reporter is well deserved, and the fun it is likely to provoke whenever spoken of, may deter others from committing the offence—the gross impertinence we might say—of accusing any one of writing anything that appears in a public newspaper or periodical under the editor's authority. The impersonality of the press is one of the greatest literary safeguards of the times; and when a man, biassed by the wish, which is father to the thought, circulates the hurtful hint that so-and-so wrote such-and-such an article, for which the editor or reporter is alone responsible, he is guilty of an indiscretion, and when his accusation comes to be put in black and white, and is shown to be false, nothing but an apology from the offender should follow. We write thus emphatically on this subject, seeing we have received communications containing impertinences of the above nature—accusations against certain prominent educationists for writing editorials for us, which they could never possibly have seen unless after

the monthly issue of our journal had been printed.

The Royal Victoria College, Montreal, is expected to be opened soon, if arrangements can be completed for its organization during the visit of Lord Strathcona to Canada. The building, which stands on the north side of Sherbrooke street, with the statue of the Queen in front, is one of the most spacious in the city, and has been erected solely at the charge of Lord Strathcona, the generous Chancellor of McGill University, who intends also to endow it before the governors of the university assume control. The building will be exclusively set apart for the lady students of the Donalda Course, being supplied with suitable boarding apartments and spacious teaching halls, with all the latest improvements connected with home and college life. What the new organization will be it is impossible to say at this early date, but in all likelihood the college will be placed in the hands of a Dean, who will have charge of the institution, subject to the corporation, as are the other faculties. A staff of professors will be appointed to assist the professors of the Faculty of Arts in the various departments, but whether these new professors will be brought from Great Britain or be Canadian trained can only come up for serious consideration as soon as the intentions of the donor are made known. There is no doubt that the Royal Victoria is sure to become in time one of the best equipped and most efficient ladies' colleges on this side of the Atlantic, and we congratulate Montreal on the prospect.

The correspondence system of tuition has not found its way into Canada to the extent it has into other countries, and this is easily explained by the fact that our colleges have not

opened their undergraduate courses to extra mural students, unless, as in the case of Queen's University, Kingston, only to a limited extent. The argument in favor of the system may be put, as Mr Jennings puts it in a communication to *The Australian School-master*. The mediæval system of giving oral instruction is still essential for the education of young children, but persons who have reached the sixth standard in the State schools, or the sub-matriculation class in a private school, may enter on any pursuit by way of earning a livelihood, and, without neglecting the business of the moment, prepare for higher or more congenial pursuits, if more devoted to Minerva than to Mercury. Everything that could be *said* by way of explanation may be *written*; and written explanations have one very obvious advantage—they may be kept till they are fully and adequately mastered. A spoken explanation may be but half comprehended and soon forgotten; but *littera scripta manet*. In country places there are few amusements for winter evenings that are not injurious; the study of some subject, under expert guidance, gives perennial joy, and is a less expensive amusement than possibly any other.

A telegraphic despatch was lately sent from England to India in which it was stated that "Mr. Wren, the celebrated crammer," was dead, and a contemporary holds up his hands at the phraseology of the message, and exclaims—what a reputation to have—to be known to the world and handed down to posterity as "the celebrated crammer." What Canadian teacher, we may say on our own part, would care to have such a phrase written on his tombstone, even if it be only the idle spoken phrase of a newspaper reporter? That is only an idle spoken expression, one who knew Mr. Wren and his life-work declares, when

he says: "Knowing what we do of the character of the man, we can imagine his ghost chuckling, if not glorying, in a title which is an unbounded libel on his life-work. The men who went to Mr. Wren were already largely educated, and in most cases had the necessary information at their disposal. It was Mr. Wren's function to teach them how to make the very best use of their information and brains, and because he succeeded to an extraordinary extent by his ability, his energy, his insight into character, by his ready grasp of the strong and weak points of his pupils, and by his system of competent teachers and small classes, he is to be everlastingly and opprobriously dubbed 'the celebrated crammer.' The fact is Mr. Wren was a born teacher, and was as far removed from the real crammer as the north pole is from the south. Undoubtedly there is such a thing as 'cramming.' The genuine article may be found in India, where its manufacture is fostered by a multiplicity of subjects and of examinations which in too many cases, alas! put a premium on the accumulation and the merely mnemonical knowledge of heavy, ill digested facts. But it is an abuse of terms to apply the offensive word 'cramming' to a system, such as that practised by the late Mr. Wren, where thoroughness went hand in hand with rapidity, where principles were explained, no difficulties slurred, important points emphasized, and where the utmost application and concentration were demanded."

Where this thing is going to end we do not know, but we can hardly think that it will end with benefit to our schools or the children attending them. Perhaps there is no truth in the report, but if there be it will hardly pass without discussion, and the sooner the discussion begins the better it will be for our boys. We give the paragraph for what it is worth.

The public school board has accepted the invitation of Hon. W. D. Bloxham, governor of Florida, to send a drill company of fifty public school boys to visit Tampa, Florida, in February, 1899, when similar companies of boys from various states of the union will also be in Tampa. The railways have made special arrangements for the occasion so that the expense will be slight. Members of the board were of the opinion that it would be more patriotic to send the boys to the historical scenes of Quebec, or to Lundy's Lane, but on the whole it was thought that the Florida trip would do more towards fostering the friendliness between the United States and Canada, besides giving a desirable advertisement to Canada.

The reputed breakdown of the compulsory idea is a surprise to its numerous advocates in Canada, and, while the school authorities of the city of London, England, are considering possible remedies, those who favor the enforcing of compulsory attendance in our Canadian schools may be inclined to review their arguments in face of the facts as they are thus stated. Every time the London Elementary Schools are open there are absent 145,000 of the 754,000 children enrolled, or, roughly, one out of every five. Many of these children are kept away from school by sickness and other reasonable causes; but the statistics of attendance show that a very large proportion of the absentees are practically always away from school, and that their absence is wholly owing to the indifference or cupidity of the parents. It is the same children who are constantly absent from school. They cannot be always suffering from illness, and, as a matter of fact, they may be found any day playing about the street corners or discharging the duties of what is called "a little place." The parents are summoned from time

to time before attendance committees, and even before the magistrates; but there is little practical improvement in the attendance of the children, and the same parents are found neglecting their duty over and over again. In short, our compulsory laws are compulsory in name only. Parents ignore them and defy them.

The possibility of making the Common School a place where children may be trained to run a farm or cook a meal is an idea which bothers our philanthropists every now and again, and brings them to the front as would-be educationists. This time it is the Countess of Warwick who says that there is a fateful tendency on the part of the sons and daughters of small farmers to gravitate towards the town, where wages are higher, where life is more varied, and the chance of competency greater than in the country. So year by year the rural districts lose a certain proportion of their youth, and it is always the best who go—the strongest, the "brainiest," and the most enterprising—while to the inferior stock is left the task of replenishing the nation's granaries. Thus the problem is: How to keep the clever ones on the farm, and give them and the others the necessary weapons for grappling with the problems of agricultural economy. We want to make the next generation of farmers' sons and daughters a little more nearly abreast of the times; we want to enable them to look at their business from many points of view instead of from one—that, namely, of their great-grandfathers; in a word, we want to imbue them with the spirit of wise experimenting. Now it is of little use to try to alter the set convictions of grown men. They have been moulded into a groove from which even the stern teachings of necessity will not make them budge. But our hope lies with the farmers' young sons and daughters.

I say daughters, because we must be just as "keen" on the fitting education of country girls as on that of country boys, and this is purely a question of education.

The argument of the generous-hearted countess is heard often enough in Canada these days, but only as coming from those who have never considered carefully what the true function of the Common School or Grammar School really is. The man or woman who wants agriculture and carpentering and shorthand and type-writing and cooking and bed-making taught in our schools has never distinguished between the school-training that becomes an abuse of the child's faculties and the training which leads to their fuller development. Pedagogy and the training for artizanship are two different things, and to mix them up directly would be to curtail the force in both that makes for race improvement. How did the Countess of Warwick ever find out that a certain class of boys were born to be ploughmen until the proper tests had been applied to them in legitimate school-work to prove that they were the "brainiest" of the boys of the parish? Would she really turn the Common School into a new providence that shall say what calling in life this boy shall take up and what duties the other will assume? Let her go to any of our "specialist" schools and see what the result has been, even when the effort has been made to emphasize the religious love of school-life by a rigidly frequent catechism training.

The following paragraph, taken from one of the leading educational periodicals of England, will show our readers how direct are the references in our contemporaries' columns to those whose desire it is to lead public opinion in the direction of their own misguided opinion. Were the editor of *The Journal of Education* writing for

a Canadian constituency, and were he to use such direct forms of speech towards any of our dignitaries, educational or otherwise, he would possibly have to run the gauntlet of misrepresentation, which Major Hewton, of Richmond, has lately been subjected to according to his own showing. The way of the reformer is hard, and the plain-speaking publicist has a thousand and one frictional points to encounter, which his relevancy of judgment does not calculate on meeting. But our London friend has always a fearless way of facing the music when a sound educational doctrine is being played upon; and yet his paper continues to be the most respectable of our exchanges. This is a specimen of how he puts things: "The Bishop of London is one of the most learned, and, without a doubt, the most versatile, Bishops on the Bench; and, if he does not adorn, he at least enlivens, everything he touches. Last month he addressed an assemblage of teachers at Sion College, and appeared in the new *role* of a teacher. The main doctrines he enforced were familiar to all teachers, however little they may be practised—the necessity of exciting the curiosity and cultivating the curiosity of a child—in brief, the fundamentals that every master of method insists upon from the very first. These doctrines had not been gained from any study of pedagogics, but by experience and plain mother-wit. He began, so he told his audience, as a teacher, absolutely ignorant of teaching, and all he had ever learned had been at the expense of those committed to his charge. The natural inference from these premises is surely: 'What a pity for my pupils, if not for myself, that I did not start at the point where I have ended!' Not so, Dr. Creighton. He concludes therefore, that 'Teaching is really an incommunicable art. It is a gift, like all other gifts.' We are not going to

reargue this stalest of all fallacies, which seems to have a peculiar fascination for the episcopal mind. But we may venture to point out that, however gifted by nature, Dr. Creighton is not yet perfect in the art of teaching. Whether history teaching should begin with the policeman or the Witenagemot is a moot point; and, though, in our opinion, the weight of argument is in favor

of beginning with ancient history, the Bishop is entitled to his opinion. Can we, however, conceive a trained teacher beginning his history lesson; 'Suppose your father was drunk'? *Maxime debetur pueris reverentia* is a lesson instilled into every Board school teacher, though he may never have heard the name of Juvenal."

CURRENT EVENTS.

Dr. Paulsen points out the following as the deplorable and unwished-for results of public examinations:

(1) The examination changes the mental attitude of the student to the subject. His attention is drawn from the subject of study and fixed upon the examination. The constraint of an examination brings with it a dislike of the subject, and what one likes is dismissed from the mind as soon as the necessity for outward expression ceases. It is this distaste arising from compulsory examination that is responsible for the large amount of "learning by heart" from short and superficial works.

(2) The examination gives to previous study a tendency to be superficial and directed to what lends itself to recitation. The knowledge that can be "shown off" counts for the most. Formulas, definitions, rules, forms, facts and dates lend themselves to repetition; in short, all that is external, that can be learned and recited, but not what one thinks or feels. It cannot be otherwise; examination questions are necessarily more tests of the memory than of judgment. The effect is that an undue importance is attached to mere facts. It is undoubtedly a fact that the student who, by "cramming," has primed himself with superficial knowledge and external facts, without much reflection,

takes an examination with greater prospect of success than one who has read and studied with genuine interest the subject, and, perhaps, with far better results to his own culture, but who has neglected the more recitable facts.

(3) Examinations tend to produce uniformity and mediocrity. An examination that takes into account, not only the standing of the scholars, but is also designed as a test of the master and the school, has necessarily the effort of producing uniformity. While in the intellectual life uniformity and equality are far less important than originality and variety, examinations tend to produce a mediocre standard for all students in all subjects. In every examination of a large number of persons, the clever ones find little opportunity for doing themselves justice; the questions must be chosen to suit the average candidate.

To sum up: State examinations tend to suppress individuality, to destroy independence, to promote superficial knowledge and to stamp out all attempt at original thought. The superficiality which at present goes under the name of education, the glib readiness to discuss all subjects, are undoubtedly the outcome of the technical public examinations. Examinations require knowledge that has no relation to the positions to be filled and do not take into account the special fitness of the

candidate. They encourage superficiality and neglect proper foundations. Finally, the possession of the certificate gives a false feeling of security and self-complacency.

This statement of the evil results of examinations does not imply a recommendation for their abolition. They are necessary evils, whose existence should never be forgotten. But we cannot return to the system of individual preference and patronage. All that we can do is to do away with superfluous examinations.

The following rules for the guidance of examiners are suggested by Professor F. Paulsen in his able contribution to Rein's *Encyklopädisches Handbuch der Pädagogik*:

(1) Lay stress upon the positive elements. The examination as such has the opposite tendency to bring out all deficiencies.

(2) Begin with easy, simple and specific questions. An obscure question and answer easily upset the whole examination.

(3) Treat mistakes and misconceptions after the advice given in Gal. vi. 1: "Brethren, if a man be overtaken in a fault, ye which are spiritual, restore such a one in the spirit of meekness; consider thyself, lest thou also be tempted."

(4) Do not forget that the majority of people do not put their "best foot foremost" in an examination.

(5) Do not forget the *suaviter in modo* in a desire for the *fortiter in re*.

(6) To recommend the unworthy and ignorant is to take away from the industrious and able man what rightly belongs to him.

One more bright page has been added to the fast closing book of the nineteenth century. Little Crete—poor, torn, distracted, blood-deluged

Crete—the most beautiful island in the Mediterranean Sea—is free at last. For twenty-four hundred years its unfortunate inhabitants have been in a state of continuous warfare, until it has become proverbial as the isle of discord. In the time of Homer the little island boasted a number of flourishing cities and a dense population of the Hellenic race. It is recorded that the Apostle Paul visited it and established the Church there. From 1204 to 1669 A.D. it was under the control of the Venetians, who treated its people with great severity. In 1669 the Turks laid siege to Crete and captured it, only after a struggle of some twenty-four years. From that time to this has been one long history of treachery, oppression, tyranny and blood. The insurrection of 1866-69 was the bloodiest Cretan revolt of this century, and cost the Turkish Government thirty million dollars to suppress. During the insurrection of 1896, which led to the Turko-Greek war, the six great powers adopted a scheme of reform, which was imposed upon the unwilling Sultan by the admirals of the combined fleets. Owing to the laxity of the several powers in not sending sufficient troops to preserve order, the turbulent Turkish elements broke out once more, and this time killed a number of British officers and men. Admiral Noel at once took effective measures to punish the criminals, and in addition has now bundled the last of the Turkish troops out of the island upon a British transport, bag and baggage. As *The Globe* cartoon so aptly puts the whole matter: "The concert of Europe is doing good work for once, in bundling the Turks out of Crete. The reason appears to be that Britain is the whole concert." Prince George of Greece is the new governor, and we may now hope that with the twentieth century will come for Crete the rest and peace she has not known for more than two centuries past.

One reads through the address given by the Hon. G. W. Ross, to the Sunday School Convention at Peterboro', with a feeling akin to indignation. To know the Lord's will, and then not do it, is to confess failure indeed. According to Mr. Ross, "The moral element in citizenship was the enduring element. . . . It was well known, too, that it was the moral element in a nation which preserved it from decay. It was the lack of this element which was answerable for the fall of the civilizations of Greece and Rome." We know that it is so—the moral element is indeed the backbone of the nation; and we naturally expect Mr. Ross to go on and tell us where the teaching of this all-essential morality, necessary to preserve the nation from decay, is to be found. Then, as the representative statesman having this part of the nation's well-being in his hands, to assure us that the text-book, which taught this necessary morality was already in the hands of every coming citizen of this Province. But what does he tell the teachers of Peterboro'? "In the Public Schools it was possible only to give moral education incidentally." Will everyone please take note of that? Can anything be more disappointing—can anything be more ominous for the future? The chief Minister of Education says that the essential element which is necessary to preserve this fair Canada of ours from decay can only be taught in the Public Schools "incidentally"—and that means—

Perhaps it was more than a mere coincidence that the daily papers of Canada all contained the following notice almost immediately afterwards:

PARIS.—*The Gaulois* announces that henceforth the motto, "God protects France," will be stricken from French coin. The paper remarks sarcastically that it is a good thing, since foreigners might be led to believe from

seeing the inscription that Frenchmen still have faith in Providence. It suggests that the Government adopt the motto: "Schwartz Koppen protects the Republic."

This is one of the inevitable results of teaching "morality" in the Public Schools "incidentally."

On the day following the publication of *The Gaulois* telegram, a large public meeting was held in the town hall of Port Hope, at the call of the Archdeacon of Peterboro'. In addition to the influential clergy and laymen gathered for the Conference, the Mayor, together with the Presbyterian and Methodist ministers, was upon the platform, and took part in the proceedings. The Hon. S. H. Blake, Q. C., in a powerful address, strongly contended that, whilst our system of education admirably met the needs of the body and mind, it left the needs of the spiritual faculties untouched. He pointed out why the Sunday School was inadequate to supply the needs of the child, and said that, whilst the liberty of the subject must be respected, he would like to see the great Christian communions united in an endeavor to have the Bible placed upon the curriculum of the schools. He thought few would deny that this was an age of irreverence and disobedience. What he wanted was, first, the Bible as a text-book, and then to have its lessons taught through the medium of a catechism, in which all the questions were answered in the words of the Bible. Even as a literary production the Bible was of unparalleled value. He pointed out that the nations that ruled out or disregarded the Bible were the decaying nations of to-day, and concluded with an eloquent appeal for unity in forwarding the work of Biblical instruction.

We believe that Mr. Blake was well within the mark when he said that our

Sunday School system was entirely inadequate to supply the needs of the child, therefore of the nation which they are to become in the future. The great question before the people of Canada to-day is, "Shall our Public Schools be allowed to train up a race of educated heathen in which 'morality' is taught 'incidentally', or shall we demand of them the Bible as a necessary educational text-book in the schools of a Christian nation?" And surely Canada *is* a Christian nation.

The great event discussed in school and playground, at church and market, in newspaper and magazine, is the friendly alliance between the two great Anglo-Saxon powers of the world, which seems to be culminating as a force in the development of the present into a future filled with the most brilliant possibilities for the human race. It is not very well known that years ago the idea of an Anglo Saxon union was ably advanced and elaborated by Mr. John Redpath Dougall, of Montreal, in a splendid article in one of the English Reviews, and it must now be pleasant for the modest editor of the *Witness* to hear all that is being said of the alliance, years after he had made a careful study and forecast of the commercial and political aspects of the relationship between Britain and the United States. The movement is the most inspiring of the times and, though there are modest premonitions of storm in the little breaths of anxiety that blow from various quarters, there is a possibility of the alliance being matured into a treaty signed by both powers. These feeble premonitions, it may be said, are for the most part indicated in the trade jealousies and the Irish question, and nobody seems to care much to enter at any great length upon the close examination of these influences for the present.

It is a sad phase of child life to read

the following in the light of the way of living even in our own large cities, where the idea of Prohibition is never likely to be viewed favorably by a majority of the ratepayers :

For some time the General Purposes Committee have been considering a resolution passed by the managers of the Waldron Road group of schools, calling attention to the fact that the work, which at great cost was being done in the schools to promote the mental and moral training of the children, was being undone to a very large extent by their being familiarized with the sights and sounds which were invariably associated with public-houses. The managers, therefore, urgently requested the licensing magistrates of Wandsworth to express a strong condemnation of the sale of intoxicating liquors to children attending the Elementary Schools of the district. The committee recommended that a communication should be made to all the licensing magistrates within the jurisdiction of the Board, expressing the Board's strong condemnation of the sale of intoxicating liquors to children of Elementary School age.

The movement in favor of school libraries is extending, and, when it is considered what can be done with a collection of books as a practising section or literary laboratory of the school, it is a wonder that the Canadian provinces have not put forth greater efforts to provide their schools with one. Talk about workshops being attached to our schools! The library is the most useful workshop a teacher can have in which to train a child to learn of the possible companions of his after life. In Ontario the Education Department has had in hand the supervision and fostering of school libraries ever since Dr. Ryerson's time, and Dr. Ross, the present Minister of Education, is as keenly alive to the necessity of the library as a school

adjunct as of any of the numerous school appliances to be found in the institutions under his direction. Dr. Harper, of the Province of Quebec, has fostered this idea of having a school library attached to the schools within his extensive inspectorate, and the movement inaugurated by him has now only to receive Government recognition and support to become a complete success. The "travelling library," which is not unknown in Ontario, is spoken of as steadily working its way in the rural places of the neighboring Republic, and the Dominion provinces that have not yet taken up the "school library" as something to be fostered may possibly be induced to try the plan. In a word, the travelling library is a select assortment of books of the best class, sent out at the expense of the State or of private individuals to country communities. The library remains a specified time at each point; then is moved on to give place to another selection. The cost of transportation and other incidentals is borne by each neighborhood.

The number of people who find their mistake too late in not taking all the schooling they can get is not decreasing. The writer meets them at every turn. Add these to the men and women who never had the chance of getting a good schooling, as the phrase goes, and one can well understand the number of people in the world who can appreciate the wail of a correspondent of one of our journals who signs himself "Ignoramus." A book bearing the title of "Ignorance" had fallen into the hands of "Ignoramus," and in speaking of it he expresses himself as follows: "The author says, and I fear rightly, that after the usual course of school and college the majority of both men and women forget that education is a thing that must last their whole lives long if they

are to be truly cultured, and rarely read, save such books as touch on their profession or trade, fiction, newspapers, and magazines. He points out some new ideas for use in educating the future generation, which are good in many ways, but I would ask him for help for the present one. Many a man and woman debarred by accidents of poverty or health from being educated in their youth, and many more who wasted or let drop their opportunities, would now gladly educate themselves did they know the way, but pause appalled at, and shrink from, a plunge into the great mass of instructive literature without some clue to guide them. Will not Mr. Dorman follow up his work on 'Ignorance' with a pamphlet or newspaper article giving a few different courses of study suitable for men and women which might at least start them on their work of self-culture? He would gain the thanks of many, and it would be a practical way of helping them out of that slough of ignorance which he deplores, and teach them to know 'something of everything,' even if they never reach the height of knowing 'everything of something.'"

The Hon. Joseph Chamberlain's speech on the Fashoda affair has drawn attention to the iniquitous "dog in the manger" policy which has crippled Newfoundland so long. So *The Montreal Gazette* says, "it comes as a breeze of hope to the people of that colony." Great Britain, as that newspaper pertinently remarks, has for years pursued a policy of doing nothing to offend French susceptibilities, and the Newfoundlanders believe that such policy was taken advantage of by France to add to their difficulties on what is known as the French Shore of their island. By a treaty made before Great Britain's statesmen appreciated what their American territories would come to, French fishermen were

given privileges on the then unoccupied coasts that, as they are now asserted by France, are found to be an evil, retarding the legitimate development of the colony by depriving its people of the opportunity to use its natural resources. From rights that, by the island contention, were never intended to give anything but equality with the British residents, French statesmen and French ship captains have developed their claims till they assert that British residents on British territory have to make way for a Frenchman whenever he appears. Lobster canneries, in which Newfoundlanders have invested large sums of money, have been shut up, in obedience to French demands, and other things equally galling to Newfoundlanders have had to be submitted to. Protest has been unavailing, and sometimes it must have been a strain on the islanders' sense of duty to agree to what was required of them, in the interests of the Mother Country's good relations with a foreign power. The constant dropping of colonial protests has served its purpose to some extent, however. Admiral Erskine and Sir John Bramston were this year sent out as a royal commission to enquire into Newfoundland's grievances, and, while their report is not yet published, it may be inferred that its summing up of the situation, or, at least, the preliminary statements of its framers, must be of a nature favorable to the colony. Otherwise Mr. Chamberlain would hardly have spoken as he did. Newfoundland, he says, is seriously suffering from an intervention which is of no advantage to France, although a serious detriment to a British colony. The end of the trouble is not likely to come immediately. There will be no notice to quit, such as the Fashoda occupation led to. But, with a leading minister taking such a position, it is fairly sure that the matter has reached a new stage, that Newfoundland now

has a powerful friend, where before it had only unsympathetic listeners, and that something will be attempted for the removal of the cause of grievance. An insistence that the French fishermen who frequent the shore shall have nothing that the words of the treaty do not provide for may be the first step towards the end.

It is said, and with some show of truth, that the higher salaries paid in the Board Schools of England are attracting teachers who a few years ago would have entered secondary schools. But there is another side to the question. Witness the fact that a School Board in Wales is advertising for an assistant-mistress to take charge of the sewing and to teach infants, at a salary of £15 a year. Another recent advertisement is more amusing than tragic. A certificated mistress is needed in a Church school. She is to have no family, but must possess a husband who is "an experienced farm laborer."

During last summer vacation I paid a visit to the Niagara peninsula, and was fascinated by its manifold attractions. This is the name given to that part of the Province of Ontario, Canada, which lies between Lakes Erie and Ontario, and is bounded on the east by the great river. It is a land of gardens, of orchards and of pleasant homes. The sylvan beauty of the inland scenery contrasts strikingly with the magnificence of the cataract and the awful grandeur of the river gorge. In the quiet village of Stamford, but two miles from the whirlpool, the traveller who has visited old England recognizes a perfect reproduction of a Lincolnshire village, with its quaint little church lighted up by the variegated colors of memorial windows—the stained glass no cheap product, but something worth gazing upon. Probably nowhere on the continent is

there to be found so delightful a ride for the wheelman as that from Buffalo to Niagara Falls, and thence through Stamford to St. David's, Queenston and Niagara-on-the-Lake. It affords a combination of all that is delightful to the senses—side paths like silk, shady avenues, exquisite prospects. There are two noble panoramas—that of the Falls, as seen from the upper steel bridge, and that of the lower Niagara River, as seen from Queenston Heights. Nor is the historical sense left without stimulation. Almost every mile along the way is associated with some daring deed, or some eventful contest. Here the gallant Miller made his famous dash at the battery; there Winfield Scott surrendered; there Sir Isaac Brock fell; there Laura Secord, the heroine of Canadian story, started out on her famous midnight walk.

It is impossible in reading the story of the War of 1812 as it affected the peninsula not to feel a warm sympathy with the people who were fighting for their homes and for their historic flag. Now at the close of the nineteenth century, when the Republic has asserted itself as not the least among the great nations of the earth, her historians are beginning to do justice to the colonists, who, differing from the majority in the great struggle of the Revolution, were branded as Tories, credited with countless crimes and misdemeanors they were never guilty of, and ruthlessly expelled from their homes. As United Empire Loyalists in their new domicile in Upper Canada, they established on the shores of Lake Ontario a community marked by all the essential excellencies which the modern social philosopher delights to enumerate as he contemplates the America of our day.

At the time of the war the population of the whole province was about 85,000; now it is 2,225,000. The people may well be proud of the repu-

tation they enjoy. An incident which happened to me may serve to illustrate this. As I was skimming along from Tonawanda one morning, after a visit to Buffalo, a piece of slag in the treacherous cinderpath punctured my hind tire. A pleasant-faced woman, aided by her family, all bright and helpful, repaired the injury, the husband, who carried on the business, being absent. I told her I was returning to Niagara Falls, Ontario. Inferring (wrongly) from this that I was a Canadian, she remarked that Canadians often stopped at the repair-shop. "And every one of them has treated us well," she continued. "I wish I could say the same of the people on this side, although I am an American myself."

The scene of the most bitterly contested battle of the war is close to the great cataract. The eminence for the possession of which so many brave men lost their lives is now crowned by an unæsthetic observatory tower. Across the way is the quiet cemetery by the Presbyterian Church, where many of the dead lie buried. To the Canadians the spot awakens memories similar to those of Bannockburn and Marathon. It was here that the last of four successive invasions of their soil was sturdily and definitely repulsed. A monument has been erected by the parliament of the province in honor of the patriots who fought on that memorable evening in July, 1814, and, after the hardest of struggles conquered.

Most American visitors, remembering the account of the battle as given in their school histories, are puzzled, amused or chagrined at the confidence with which the keeper of the Lundy's Lane Observatory insists that the inscription on the monument is wholly justified by the facts of the case. When they begin to investigate matters for themselves they are mortified. They find that they have been fooled by their school histories. The follow-

ing is from an account of the battle as given in a widely read history for schools :

"At midnight the British gave up their efforts, and left the Americans in possession of the field. This battle of Lundy's Lane, or Bridgewater, was one of the most hotly contested actions ever fought in the new world. Three thousand Americans and 4,500 British took part in it. The former lost 743 in killed and wounded ; the latter, 878."

The above is complete fable. The requirements of grave historical accuracy overturn nearly every statement made.

"At midnight the Americans gave up their efforts, and left the British in possession of the field. . . . Four thousand Americans and 2,840 British took part in it. The former lost about 1,200 ; the latter, 878."

The second in command of the United States forces, General Peter B. Porter, in a letter recently published by the Lundy's Lane Historical Society, dated Aug. 12th, 1814, and addressed to D. D. Tompkins, Governor of New York State, specifically calls the battle "a defeat," in which "the dead, the wounded, and captured artillery and our hard-earned honor were left to the enemy." The general who commanded the American forces at the close of the battle (Brown, Scott and Porter all being wounded and *hors de combat*) was court-martialed, as were Hull after his defeat at Detroit, Proctor after his defeat on the Thames, Prevost after his defeat at Plattsburg. It is true the court-martial terminated abruptly with General Ripley's acquittal—for a verbatim account, again consult the Transactions of the Lundy's Lane Historical Society—but it was as a defeated general that he was brought to account.

The admirable Josiah Quincy, whose life and character Lowell has outlined for us in his essay, "A great public character" in "My Study Windows,"

was bitterly opposed to the invasion of Canada, which he characterized as a "buccaneering expedition." When disaster followed disaster, he regarded these as by no means so disgraceful as the initial crime of the invasion. Many patriotic Americans have agreed with Quincy ; but that is by the way. Certainly one undoubted disgrace still remains to be wiped out ; the narration of the history of the war as far as American writers have undertaken the task. The Canadian, Kingsford, in the eighth volume of his "History of Canada," has done good work ; but we want it done from the American standpoint. As matters stand at present, American visitors to the peninsula, in quoting their historians as authorities, expose themselves to ridicule.

To quote one signal instance out of many. Any serious student of the campaign of 1813 knows that the lowest point in the fortunes of the British defenders of Upper Canada was reached when Chauncey, with his fleet, landed a victorious army of 4,000 men at Niagara-on-the-Lake, and left General Dearborn master of the situation. The British hurriedly evacuated Fort George and retreated to their last rallying-point at Burlington Heights, near what is now the prosperous city of Hamilton. Until reinforcements should arrive they numbered barely 1,500 men, in all respects badly equipped. The victorious American army, nearly 4,000 strong, moved along the lake shore to drive them from their position ; and to await the attack probably meant defeat and the loss of the province. On June 5th the invaders were but seven miles off, at Stony Creek, in a well-chosen camping-ground. This date marks the turning point of the war. A brilliant exploit on the part of the forces at bay changed the attacked into pursuers, and completely demoralized the invading army, so that henceforward it accomplished nothing. A chosen band

of 704 redcoats, under a leader who was afterwards famous at Waterloo, stole into the American camp shortly after midnight, bayoneted the pickets, dispersed the bewildered battalions as they attempted to form, captured two of the eight field-guns, and retired before daylight should disclose the paucity of their numbers, with the two generals, Winder and Chandler, and over a hundred others as their prisoners. It is one of the best instances on record of "rushing a camp."

The following is the garbled account served out to the American schoolboy :

"A superior force of Americans set out in pursuit (of the British to Burlington Heights), but were attacked at night by the British while encamped a few miles from their lines. The enemy were so warmly received that they beat a retreat, but they had managed in the melee to capture the American generals, and the officer left in command shrank from the responsibility of further offensive operations, and fell back to await orders from Dearborn. This was unfortunate ; an immediate attack on the British could hardly have failed of success, for their general also had been separated from his army in the darkness, and was found next day several miles from camp with neither hat nor sword."

He ends here. The real fact is that, before the American army got back to Fort George, the retreat rendered necessary by the demoralization, consequent on the night attack, had turned into a flight ; and that the story of the wanderings of the British general in the woods is a silly fabrication. It is on a par with the "Booby and Beauty" yarn with which Hildreth absurdly closes his account of the battle of New Orleans, and with the story of the scalp found above the Speaker's chair in the Parliament House at (Toronto) York. Our historian gravely narrates this fable, and has no space left for the important action at Beaver Dams, where Laura

Second so highly distinguished herself.

Examples like the above could be multiplied *ad nauseam* ; but I have quoted sufficient to show how our schoolboys are taught fables after the manner of the Chinese. It is impossible to learn the valuable lessons which history teaches when the writers who have the national ear, through laziness or incompetency, retail garbled or invented historic material, fit only to tickle the national vanity.

A pan-American Exposition is projected for the year 1901. It is to be held at La Salle, six miles south of the great cataract, and near the spot where the intrepid French explorer built the first vessel to navigate the upper lakes. Hundreds of thousands will visit the locality, and will have their minds turned to the deeds of the past. The history of the district begins so late as 1678, and covers no very long period. We are beginning to have history written in a fair and judicial spirit, which scorns prejudice and misstatement. Mr. Clowes, who is now publishing a history of the British Royal Navy, a magnificent work, has magnanimously entrusted to our late Assistant Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, the task of narrating the naval operations of the War of 1812. He is certain to discharge the delicate task efficiently. We shall have no repetition of the juggling with figures. I quote again from the same precious school history, which makes Perry capture 600 prisoners, when the enemy went into the fight with but 384 men in all ! Let us hope that before the Exposition opens some competent historian, of the calibre of Mr. Roosevelt, shall have given us a trustworthy history of the land operations during the same period. The present histories are not staffs to lean upon, but reeds which pierce the hand that trusts them.—*By Prof. J. M. Dixon, F.R.S. Edinburgh, of Washington University, St. Louis, in The Independent, N.Y.*

MAGAZINE AND BOOK REVIEWS.

In the November number of *Scribner's Magazine*, with which the year ends, their two important serials are concluded. Red Rock, by Thomas Nelson Page, has fully sustained the promise with which it was begun, and should be a considerable addition to the historic literature dealing with the Civil War in the United States. As is well known by this time, "The Workers," by Prof. Wyckoff, treats of social conditions. It doubtless will give a strong impulse to true humanity, but in it the observant reader will also discover that the tendency in the novel of the future will be not to the invention of imaginary episodes, however true they may be to the principles and ethics of art, but to the relation of what has actually happened in the author's life, hidden and altered as may be necessary. Letters of Robert Louis Stevenson will form one of the most important departments in *Scribner's* for 1899.

Lippincott's is always distinctly popular in the character of its literature. Having no illustrations, it gives all its space to useful and entertaining reading matter. It has no serials, so each number is complete in itself, but it will during the next year retain its most distinctive and popular feature, a complete novel in each issue. *Lippincott's* is one of the few well-known magazines that are as well pleased to have a good story from a new writer as from one who is better known.

The November number of *St. Nicholas* was a birthday issue. This magazine, for children, is now twenty-five years old, and it still is happy in the services of its first editor, Mary Mapes Dodge. The indefatigable and popular Mr. Henty begins a serial which treats of American history, and Mrs. Barr will contribute during 1899 a romance of Old New York. On the last page Gelett Burgess adorns a moral—a very plain one—with his Goop Babies.

The Bookman, since it is *The Bookman*, tells us in its November issue all the current information, and a trifle more, about Cyrano de Bergerac. There is also something about Mr. Hall Caine and his "Christian," one cannot take the responsibility of calling it anybody else's, along with a picture of Glory Quayle, overcoming the Rev. Mr. Storm, which ought to keep a good many people from going to the play. Clement Shorter is particularly happy in "A Literary Causerie" for this month.

One may ignore the late war in another magazine but not in the *American Monthly Review of Reviews* for November. The most important contribution on this subject is from Mr. James Creelman, and is entitled "My Experiences at Santiago." Mr. Creelman is a gentleman who has had other opportunities of forming war impressions from the standpoint of a correspondent, and this makes his experiences all the better reading. One of the most important items in the list of contents is An Impeachment of Modern Italy by Onida. There is a reply to this in the same number by Giovanni Della Vecchia.

The Thanksgiving number of *The Youth's Companion* contains a sketch of Mary E. Wilkins, entitled "Seventy Years Ago in New England," which is written in her own amusing strain. It is illustrated by a charming drawing. There is also a jolly circus story by J. L. Harbour, with most successful illustrations. The number is a particularly good one, and, as usual with *The Companion*, one can feel sure that the success which it merits will follow.

The Saturday Night has achieved a genuine success with its Christmas number. The colored plate. The Mystery of the Morn, deserves all the flattering things that have been said about it, which is a surprising thing when one considers

the general rule. The stories are, almost without exception, interesting, the first requirement of every reader whether he be professional or non-professional, so far as literature is concerned. Mr. Sheppard is to be congratulated on his account of the tragedy of a South American Republic; Mack contributes a short story entitled, "Rebel Met Rebel," which is a considerable advance on anything he has before published, and which justifies one in saying that Mr. Clark has attained success in this department of literature. Among other contributors who may be mentioned are Mrs. J. K. Lawson and W. A. Fraser.

Mr. S. R. Crockett's latest volume is entitled "The Red Axe." It has been recently issued by the Copp, Clark Company, Toronto. For the meantime Mr. Crockett has exhausted Scotland, and is following the fortunes of one of his brotherhood of adventurers in Germany. In the first chapter or so the story is a little too red, or "buggy," as the small boy used to say, but after that the author deals successfully with the romance of the Middle Ages, and adds another to the already long list of his readable books. It was announced some time ago that Mr Crockett was pledged to write so many stories for many years ahead. There is every evidence of this being true, but when his time of servitude is over he will accomplish success more happily by taking time.

Received from Macmillan & Co., through their Toronto agents, The Copp, Clark Co. :

"Macaulay's Life and Writings of Addison," edited by R. F. Winch.

From the American Book Company, New York :

"American Elementary Arithmetic," by M. A. Bailey. "A Primary Arithmetic," by A. R. Hornbrook. "Language Lessons," by J. G. Park. "Geographical Nature Studies," by F. O. Payne. "The Story of the English," by H. A. Guerber. "Outdoor Studies," by J. G. Needham. "A Short Course in Music," Book 2, by F. H. Ripley and T. Tapper.

We have received from W. and A. K. Johnston, Edinburgh, their latest map, an excellent one, of the Dominion of Canada. The new territories, especially the gold districts, are marked out with the latest developments, and are among the many considerable changes that make even modern maps of our Dominion out of date. While a Canadian can never scan such a thing as a map of his own country without lamenting some eccentric dash of the boundary line, at the same time the more than sufficient greatness of the country at our disposal is even more plainly evident. The map is specially commended to our schools

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